DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 040 280 VT 011 085

TITLE	Manpower Report of the President. A Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training.
INSTITUTION	Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Mar 70
NOTE	322p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 (L1.42/2:970, $2.50)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$1.25 HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Administrative Policy, *Annual Reports, Demonstration Programs, Educational Programs, Employment Patterns, Employment Programs, Employment Statistics, Equal Opportunities (Jobs), *Federal Programs, *Manpower Development, *Manpower Needs, *Manpower Utilization, Professional Occupations

ABSTRACT

This report on 1969 manpower problems and programs reflects an increased emphasis on the economic as well as the social objectives and contributions of manpower programs. Seven chapters present details of the economic, socioeconomic, labor, training, and programmatic activities which constitute the nation's manpower program: (1) Manpower and Economic Policy, (2) The Employment and Unemployment Record, (3) New Developments in Manpower Programs, (4) Toward Equal Employment Opportunity, (5) Employment and Poverty, (6) Income Maintenance and Work Incentives, and (7) Manpower Demand and Supply in Professional Occupations. A new Guide to Federally Assisted Manpower Training and Support Programs, a progress report on Job Matching and Labor Market Information Programs, and a Statistical Appendix are appended. (CH)

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MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

A REPORT ON MANPOWER
REQUIREMENTS, RESOURCES,
UTILIZATION, AND TRAINING

VT011085

TRANSMITTED TO THE CONGRESS MARCH 1970

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MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

A REPORT ON MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS, RESOURCES, UTILIZATION, AND TRAINING

prepared by the
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION
& WELFARE
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TRANSMITTAL LETTER
OF THE PRESIDENT

To the Congress of the United States:

This first *Manpower Report* of my Administration recounts the major developments in employment and unemployment during 1969 and the progress we made in that year in reshaping and strengthening existing manpower programs. The report also discusses the contributions of manpower programs to the country's crucial economic objectives—controlling inflation and limiting and mitigating any rise in unemployment.

Despite the significant advances described in this report, our experience during this past year has substantiated what I said last August when I proposed a new Manpower Training Act. I said then that the inefficiencies inherent in the present patchwork of manpower programs were intolerable and that a new legislative approach to manpower problems was in order. I proposed specific reforms at that time, and I take this opportunity to urge, once again, their prompt enactment.

Other important topics treated in this *Manpower Report* include the need for improvements in our unemployment insurance system and for fundamental reform of our welfare system. Clearly, these institutions require basic reform if we are to be effective in preventing as well as relieving poverty. I again ask the Congress to act in these significant areas.

Full opportunity for all citizens remains a central goal for this Nation. To achieve that goal will require exceptionally well-constructed and well-administered manpower programs. We have made much progress toward that end in the last year, progress which is detailed in this document. But there is still a great deal to do—and this report is especially valuable because it clarifies and underscores these challenges.

Richard Nixon

THE WHITE HOUSE,
March 25, 1970.

REPORT ON MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS, RESOURCES, UTILIZATION, AND TRAINING

Prepared by the

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

George P. Shultz, *Secretary*

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY
WASHINGTON

March 13, 1970.

THE PRESIDENT

Dear Mr. President: I have the honor to present herewith a report pertaining to manpower requirements, resources, utilization, and training, as required by section 107 of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended.

Respectfully,

George P. Shultz

Secretary of Labor.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This report was prepared by the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration, in cooperation with the other Bureaus and Offices of the Department. The chapter on Manpower and Economic Policy was prepared by the Office of the Secretary. The Bureau of Labor Statistics prepared the chapter on Employment and Poverty, provided portions of the text for the chapters on The Employment and Unemployment Record and Manpower Demand and Supply in Professional Occupations, and supplied data for the Statistical Appendix. The Women's Bureau contributed to the text of the chapters on Manpower Demand and Supply in Professional Occupations and Toward Equal Employment Opportunity. The Office of the Assistant Secretary for Policy, Evaluation, and Research, the Office of Federal Contract Compliance, and the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions also contributed materially to the report.

The Office of Education of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare provided a portion of the text for the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs and contributed to other parts of the report. The Civil Service Commission provided part of the text for the chapter on equal employment opportunity. In addition, important contributions to various chapters were made by the Department of Commerce through the Bureau of the Census; the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare through the Public Health Service and the Social and Rehabilitation Service; the Department of the Interior through the Bureau of Indian Affairs; the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission; the National Science Foundation; and the Office of Economic Opportunity. Representatives of the Bureau of the Budget and of a number of other agencies and advisory committees reviewed the text and made many helpful suggestions.

The Department of Labor's Office of Information, Publications and Reports designed the graphic materials.

INTRODUCTION

This is the first report on manpower problems and programs by the Department of Labor under the present Administration. It contains a broad assessment of the role and objectives of manpower policy and of the major developments during the past year in employment and unemployment and in manpower and related programs. In addition, special attention is given to several crucial areas—the quest for equal employment opportunity; the relationships between employment and poverty, income maintenance and work incentives; and the rapidly shifting manpower demand-and-supply situation in the professions. Briefly, the themes of the report's seven chapters are as follows:

The opening chapter, on *Manpower and Economic Policy*, reflects an increased emphasis on the economic as well as the social objectives and contributions of manpower programs. Experience during the past 10 years of economic expansion has indicated the effectiveness of economic and monetary measures in preventing prolonged and severe recessions or economic stagnation, but it has also made plain that general economic policy cannot deal satisfactorily with the concentrations of unemployment and poverty in particular groups and local areas. Manpower programs—aimed for the most part at enhancing the productivity and employability of disadvantaged workers and directly aiding their job placement—are better suited to dealing with the problems of specific groups. These programs can thus be an important means of approaching closer to full employment, while limiting inflationary pressures (in ways illustrated in this chapter).

The second chapter, on *The Employment and Unemployment Record*, presents a mixed picture of manpower and economic developments during 1969—chiefly positive, but with negative aspects also. Essentially, 1969 continued the record period of job growth which began in early 1961, when the economy turned the corner on its last recession.

The year opened with an exceptionally large gain in employment, a drop in the unemployment rate to a 16-year low, and a sharp rise in the dollar value of the gross national product. Yet these gains were accompanied by sharp price increases and slackening growth in productivity, which confirmed inflationary pressures and contravened efforts to restore economic stability.

The chapter describes the subtle shifts in trend which occurred during 1969, as the forces of inflation were gradually being brought under restraint. It discusses the major developments in employment and unemployment; the economic background of these developments, as shown by GNP components; where the additional workers came from in such large numbers (they were mainly women and teenagers); and what happened to wages and unit labor costs (they both rose sharply) and to real earnings (they showed little change, as wage increases barely kept up with the price rise). The chapter also discusses many other questions of import to manpower policy, including which groups had the most unemployment (teenagers and Negroes, as in all recent years) and the implications of the new draft policy for civilian workers (it reduces the uncertainty which has recently made it difficult for draft-vulnerable young men to find jobs). In conclusion, the chapter looks ahead at the forces shaping the manpower outlook for 1970.

The *New Developments in Manpower Programs*, considered in the third chapter, reflect the

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changes in program direction achieved during 1969.

Upon taking office, the new Administration quickly undertook a review of the many existing manpower programs. The results were, first, an all-out effort to strengthen and improve ongoing programs and, second, a decision to introduce legislation which would permit the development of a new, decentralized system for planning, administering, and delivering manpower services.

Action to strengthen existing progams has included enlargement of the JOBS (Job Opportunities in the Business Sector) Program, which provides jobs and training for greatly disadvantaged people in private industry; restructuring of the two major programs for poor and jobless youth—the Neighborhood Youth Corps and the Job Corps; a rapid buildup of the WIN (Work Incentive) Program for welfare clients; and far-reaching changes in program administration. The chapter discusses these and a number of other major program developments—among them the new Public Service Careers Program to be launched early in 1970. It concludes with an analysis of the proposed Manpower Training Act transmitted to the Congress by the Administration in 1969.

The fourth chapter, *Toward Equal Employment Opportunity*, deals with the substantial progress already made and the glaring deficiencies still to be overcome in working toward equal opportunity.

Employment gains by Negroes have exceeded those by whites during the past 9 years of economic expansion. The movement of Negroes into higher level occupations has been rapid and probably accelerated during 1969. Their gains in education and income have been significant also. But whatever the measure of economic and social progress, wide differences remain between whites and blacks, and the differences are invariably to the advantage of the white majority.

The special problems of Spanish Americans and of American Indians—unquestionably the most disadvantaged minority group in the country—are also considered in this chapter. In addition, there is extended discussion of the legal and administrative actions underway to end or prevent discrimination in employment on the basis of sex or age as well as race, color, or national origin, especially in work on Federal contracts and in Federal, State, and local governments.

The fifth chapter, on *Employment and Poverty*, has two major sections. The first, concerned with the work experience of the heads of poor families, testifies to the large number of family heads who work year round full time without being able to lift their families out of poverty, and to the even larger number unable to work—because they are old, disabled, or women with young children. Some of the major factors which entrap the working poor in poverty—including lack of education and skill, irregular employment, and substandard wages—are analyzed. There is emphasis also on the geographic concentrations of poverty, particularly its higher incidence in the South than in other regions and on farms than in urban or other nonfarm areas as a whole.

The prevalence of poverty in city slum areas and the factors which contribute to it, as indicated by special surveys in the poverty areas of six cities, are discussed in the second part of the chapter. The residents of these areas, predominantly black or Spanish American, are frequently unemployed and concentrated in the lowest paid occupations. Worst off of all are the many families headed by women, who are often unable to work. The factors of chief importance as a source of poverty differ from city to city, however, underlining the need for tailoring manpower programs to the needs of each area and its people.

The sixth chapter, on *Income Maintenance and Work Incentives*, views income maintenance programs from the standpoint both of their effectiveness in preventing and relieving poverty and of their relation to work incentives.

The unemployment insurance system, discussed in the first part of the chapter, has major gaps in coverage, and the benefits paid are often inadequate in amount and duration. The provisions of the State UI laws with respect to benefit eligibility and disqualification provide generally effective protection of work incentives, however. The chapter considers both the strengths and the present shortcomings of the UI system and the recommendations for legislative strengthening of it pending before the Congress at the end of 1969.

The major issues with respect to welfare and work are the subject of the second part of the chapter. Questions discussed include the crisis which has developed in the AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children) program as a result of the recent sharp rise in the caseload, the efforts already made to strengthen the program and their hopeful though limited results, and the recommendations for much more sweeping change made by various experts. In conclusion, there is an analysis of the basically new Family Assistance Program, developed by the Administration and under consideration by the Congress.

The concluding chapter, on *Manpower Demand and Supply in Professional Occupations*, is concerned with the changing manpower situation in these key occupations and the opportunity and challenge it offers. A much more adequate overall supply of professional manpower is in sight—because of the rapidly increasing numbers of college graduates—than has been available in any recent year. Nevertheless, personnel shortages will persist in many specialties, unless training in these fields is greatly increased and personnel utilization is much improved.

After a brief overview of the shifting manpower outlook in professional and technical occupations as a whole, the chapter discusses the divergent prospects in the largest professional fields—teaching (where the demand for new personnel is decreasing); science and engineering (where personnel shortages have lessened, but the country's domestic needs will pose urgent new demands); and health occupations (where personnel shortages are critical and unabated). Other problems considered are the persistent lag in higher education of youth from lower socioeconomic groups, the need to widen opportunities for professional training of Negroes, and the impending major shift in the pattern of employment of college-educated women. Faced with a diminished demand for new teachers, the growing numbers of women college graduates will have need, as never before, for broadened opportunities outside the traditional "women's professions."

The report also has three appendixes—a new Guide to Federally Assisted Manpower Training and Support Programs, a progress report on Job Matching and Labor Market Information Programs, and a Statistical Appendix.

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MANPOWER AND ECONOMIC POLICY

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MANPOWER AND ECONOMIC POLICY

This Nation has had a growing commitment to manpower objectives and programs ever since Federal aid to education began with the Morrill Act of 1862, and it is virtually certain that these programs will continue to grow in size and significance in the years ahead. Manpower programs have traditionally been viewed as having primarily social objectives and have been directed chiefly at aiding the poor and disadvantaged. However, with the rapid expansion of these programs in recent years, there has been an increasing awareness of their significance in contributing to economic as well as social objectives. As manpower programs continue to expand, their economic impact will become more and more pronounced, and it becomes necessary to incorporate an understanding of this impact into thinking about economic policy.

One of the most distinctive developments in economics over the past 30 years has been the evolving recognition of the importance and effectiveness of stabilization policy. This has been accompanied by increasing public knowledge of stabilization policy options and increasing political acceptance of monetary and fiscal policy.

Nonetheless, the experience of the United States and other countries shows that, while these demand management policies have done much to eliminate the possibility of severe depression or economic stagnation, serious problems remain. The most important of these problems are:

1. The tendency for vigorous, expansionary economic policy to become dissipated in price increases instead of stimulating growth in the output of goods and services.

2. The tendency for disinflationary monetary and fiscal policies to result in unacceptable increases in unemployment.

3. The inability of general economic policy, which affects aggregate economic magnitudes, to deal effectively with the problems of particular groups, regions, institutions, and businesses in our society. For example, it is well known that, despite the generally prosperous economic environment which has prevailed in recent years, serious employment problems continue to exist for Negroes and teenagers.

4. The tendency, especially in recent years, toward somewhat excessive fiscal and monetary reaction to economic conditions, which has the effect of aggravating rather than reducing economic instability. For example, the inflation in 1968 and 1969 is attributable in part to an overly expansive monetary policy which was motivated by the fear of a possible recession in 1967.

Fiscal and monetary policy must continue to carry the major burden of achieving the goals of stabilization and high employment, but the above problems highlight the need for additional measures to increase the efficacy of these basic tools of economic policy. Manpower programs are potentially one of the most rewarding contributory measures, because they work directly to increase output and employment while reducing pressure on costs and prices (thus addressing the first two problems mentioned above) and because, while affecting large numbers of people, they can be tailored to the specific and diverse needs of

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various individuals, groups, and communities (thus addressing the third problem). By taking over some of the burden of achieving the Nation's economic goals, manpower programs can make it easier to apply fiscal and monetary tools in a more moderate manner, less likely to contribute to economic instability (thus addressing the fourth problem).[1]

In viewing manpower programs as an adjunct to the traditional tools of economic policy, it is helpful to draw some broad distinctions. The first distinction has already been indicated—manpower programs tend to be specific in nature, whereas monetary and fiscal policies tend to have broad, undifferentiated impacts. The second distinction is that monetary and fiscal policies tend to operate on the demand side of the economy whereas manpower programs tend to affect the supply side.[2]

As these comparisons suggest, manpower programs are a promising complement to the traditional tools of economic policy. This is especially true when manpower policy is broadly defined to include not only training programs and employment services but also unemployment insurance, programs to reduce seasonality, those aimed at easing the school-to-work transition, and related activities including the military draft. Given this broad perspective, it is impossible, in a single chapter, to detail or even touch on all of the possible ways in which manpower efforts can supplement economic policy. Consequently, the discussion is limited to a few of the more obvious and important linkages. Moreover, it should be emphasized at the outset that a number of questions about the relationship of manpower programs and economic policy are still unanswered, and policy emphasis and direction may need to be changed as experience and research provide answers to these questions. Because of these unanswered questions, this chapter is intended to be prospective rather than prescriptive.

The central discussion is organized around the relationship of manpower programs to two critical problems of economic policy—how to achieve full employment, economic growth, and price stability, and how to mitigate the effects of rising unemployment. A later section raises questions about some of the possible limitations of manpower programs as a part of economic policy.

Full Employment and Price Stability

At least since the passage of the Employment Act of 1946, a fundamental objective of economic policy has been to assure satisfactory employment opportunities for all workers. The labor force continues to grow as the population expands, and this means that fiscal and monetary policies must provide for continued economic growth. It has already been pointed out, however, that expansionary economic policies frequently lead to undesirable upward pressure on prices. The problem is especially acute when the economy nears its capacity level of output.

Even in very prosperous circumstances, some unemployment exists. Part of this unemployment is frictional and does not necessarily reflect any serious economic hardship. It results from adjustments which occur in an economy characterized by rapid growth, technological change, and a mobile labor force. Unemployment of this type takes place when persons move from one job to another in search of better wages or more desirable working and living conditions, or when they have just entered the labor force and are in the process of finding suitable employment. The other type of unemployment persisting in prosperous times represents a more serious problem. It includes people who are unemployed for extended periods because their skill levels are too low to meet the requirements for available job opportunities.

In a relatively full employment economy, fiscal and monetary policy does little to alleviate these unemployment problems without causing inflation. Expansionary policy creates a demand for goods which will drive up prices as people bid for additional output which is not forthcoming. This increased demand, in turn, causes pressure on wages as employers struggle harder to hire employees and increase output. In a prosperous environment, such wage increases are not likely to increase employment and output by very much, however. Indeed, increasing wages may encourage employees to change jobs more frequently in search of higher pay, thereby increasing, rather than decreasing, frictional unemployment. Moreover, employers may engage in more widespread hiring of those with lower skills and productivity, thereby reducing unemployment without obtaining commensurate gains in output. For these and related reasons, fiscal and monetary policy is not entirely effective in satisfying the twin goals of providing more employment and maintaining price stability when the economy is operating at, or near, capacity.

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[1] The fourth problem arises in part because of the difficulty of adjusting fiscal and monetary policy to the demands of numerous, and sometimes conflicting, economic and noneconomic goals. For example, it may be deemed important to increase welfare relief, provide for a substantial military effort, and simultaneously fight inflation. Where there are many goals, the task of achieving them may be aided by increasing the instruments available to those responsible for carrying out these policies, and manpower programs can help in this respect.

[2] These are admittedly broad distinctions and not rigid categorizations. Clearly, there are many tax programs that have microeconomic impacts and, similarly, there are some job creation aspects of manpower programs.

In such a situation, manpower and related programs can provide some help. Assuming that fiscal and monetary policies are used to keep aggregate demand at a high but not inflationary level, reduction in unemployment may be achieved by improvements in labor supply conditions. There are a number of ways in which manpower programs can contribute to such improvements.

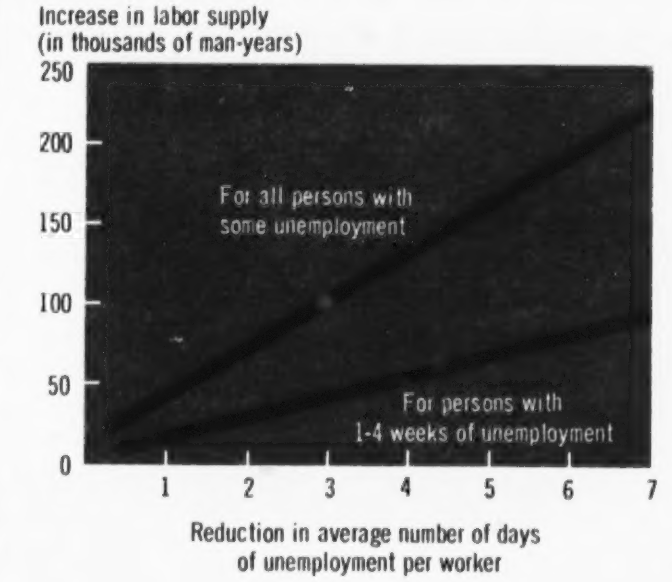
INCREASING LABOR MARKET EFFECTIVENESS

In 1968, more than 60 percent of the unemployed were people who had voluntarily left their last job or who had been out of the labor force before they began to look for work. An important cause of this unemployment—though by no means the only one—is the time it takes for these people to search out job opportunities and also the time it takes for employers with job vacancies to find people who are available for work.[3] This suggests that efforts which would facilitate the flow of information in the job market can make an important contribution in reducing unemployment and increasing the available labor supply during periods of high-level economic activity.

An interesting relationship between the supply of manpower and the duration of unemployment is illustrated in chart 1. For example, if it had been possible in 1968 to reduce the duration of unemployment by 1 week (5 days) for all workers unemployed during the year, the effective increase in man-years of employment would have been well over 200,000. If such a reduction in unemployment had been achieved for only the frictionally unemployed (here regarded as those with 1 to 4 weeks of unemployment during the year), the addition to the labor supply would have been close to 100,000 man-years.[4]

CHART 1

Speeding job matching can reduce unemployment and add to the labor supply.



Source: Department of Labor.

An important means of facilitating the flow of information in the labor market is increasing the effectiveness of the public employment service system by computerization and other improvements. The use of computer job banks, like the one now operated by the employment service in Baltimore, provides jobseekers with up-to-date records on job openings and valuable information about the nature of the jobs. Computerization of job information offers many advantages. It allows all employment service offices in a given labor market to have essentially the same information about job openings, and it becomes possible to update this information daily. Even more important, the data-handling capabilities of the computer permit officials to collect and analyze information relating to the overall behavior of the local labor market and to maintain an audit of the operations of the employment service that highlights its strengths and weaknesses. The success of existing job banks, especially in increasing the employment of the disadvantaged, has led to plans to expand this service to 76 cities by the end of 1970.

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[3] For a detailed analysis see Kathryn D. Hoyle, "Job Losers, Leavers, and Entrants—A Report on the Unemployed," *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1969. In 1969, job leavers and entrants represented about 65 percent of the unemployed.

[4] The total number of workers unemployed for 1 week or more during 1968 was 11.3 million. If each of these workers had obtained a job 1 day sooner, this would have resulted in an additional 11.3 million man-days or about 44,000 man-years (52 weeks of 5 days each) of employment. The number who were unemployed 1 to 4 weeks (and also had some work during the year) was 4.9 million. If each of these short-term unemployed workers had gone to work 1 day sooner, this would have meant 19,000 additional man-years. If the reduction in unemployment had been greater (for example, 5 days), the addition to the productive labor supply would, of course, have been correspondingly increased.

A companion activity, the Employment Service Automated Reporting System (ESARS), will provide longitudinal information on persons as they move through the various manpower services. It becomes possible to find out exactly what kinds of services have been provided for any given applicant—interviewing, counseling, training, job referral, and others. This kind of information is useful to both employment service personnel and potential employers and helps to reduce the time required to locate job opportunities that are mutually satisfactory to the employee and the employer.

The final step in computerization of employment service operations is the establishment of computer programs that will match jobseekers with suitable job openings. While computer matching is still in the developmental stage, it holds a great deal of promise. Given the expanding capabilities of modern computers, it is not hard to envision the day when computer job matching will be able to relate vast amounts of quantitative and qualitative information on applicants and employers. This will reduce the time needed to find and fill jobs and enhance the likelihood that new hires will result in longer term employment and lower turnover rates.

THE TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

Steps which facilitate the transition from school to work can help to reduce frictional unemployment and also improve long-run employment prospects for many young people. In addition to improvements in the employment service, there are a number of manpower and other programs that can be of aid in this area.

An important problem in the school-to-work transition is the tendency for youth to leave school, for economic and other reasons, before they have acquired enough education to perform successfully in the job market. The Neighborhood Youth Corps seeks to remedy this problem by making it easier for youth to remain in school. The in-school program provides part-time work, thereby offering financial assistance and job experience which increases the employability of the individual upon graduation. The out-of-school program encourages high school dropouts to resume their education on a full- or part-time basis, while preparing them for employment through vocational training and other services. The summer NYC program provides work experience and financial aid with the intent that the participants will find it easier to return to school in the fall.

Federally aided vocational education programs also serve to ease the school-to-work transition by providing occupational training oriented to job market needs. Followups in the fall of 1967 indicated that the unemployment rate for graduates of secondary school vocational education programs was significantly below the average rate for June 1967 high school graduates.

Cooperative education programs are a particularly promising approach to the school-to-work transition problem. In this type of vocational education program, a formal relationship is established between employers and the public schools which permits students to divide their time between work and classroom study in a meaningful, coordinated manner. The jobs students hold are intended to introduce them to an occupational field. These jobs often offer training in specific skills, while the classroom studies provide the students with the broader educational inputs needed for their work. A teacher-coordinator monitors their progress on the job and in school, counsels them, and insures that job quality is good and instructional program appropriate. The classroom studies are designed to be broad enough to enable students to move up the occupational ladder after they leave school or to go on to college.

Although the cooperative education program is still relatively small, a broad expansion of it would make a great contribution toward overcoming the transition problems faced by young people. Studies of the youth labor market suggest that major difficulties are encountered in moving out of "youth work"—largely part-time, marginal employment—into career entry jobs. At present, youth not bound for college receive little help in exploring occupational interests and abilities or in making personal contacts while still in school that will lead to career entry jobs at graduation. Evaluations of the Neighborhood Youth Corps have repeatedly shown that "work experience" unrelated to real job opportunities has little, if any, effect on future employability. On the other hand, when enrollees obtain experience in areas where job opportunities exist, and when the program is geared to helping them learn the basic skills needed for entry, graduates find their employability improved.

Cooperative education fits well into this situation. By involving employers more directly with public schools, it reduces barriers to the employment of youth, while providing them with salable experience before they enter the job market on a full-time basis. Moreover, by allowing students to test their interests and abilities, these programs help many to sharpen their goals and develop career motivations. For the disadvantaged, cooperative education may provide the crucial element of relevance together with equally necessary income, thus making public education work for them—for the first time.

In recent years, one of the most important causes of unemployment among young men just leaving school has been a military draft policy that created a significant period of uncertainty about the individual's availability for permanent employment.[5] Uncertainty about when, if ever, a recent high school or college graduate will be drafted makes many employers wary about hiring these job applicants, even when they possess needed skills and abilities. This same uncertainty on the part of job applicants also means that many are reluctant to actively seek work, thereby contributing to "hidden" unemployment.

The present Administration has made some important changes in the Nation's military draft policy, which have the effect of reducing this uncertainty and will consequently reduce the unfavorable employment impact of the military draft. The 1969 amendments to the Military Selective Service Act of 1967 reduced the period of maximum draft vulnerability to 1 year and instituted a random system of selection which identifies, early in the year, those young men who are most likely to be drafted. While these changes go far toward solving recent problems, this is a policy area in which even more can be done. In recognition of this, further changes in military draft policy are currently under consideration, including the alternative of an all-volunteer armed force which would eliminate the draft entirely, except in periods of national emergency.

A number of other factors that may contribute to youth unemployment are currently being examined by the Department of Labor. Among these are the effects on youth unemployment of legal restrictions on hours of work, working conditions, and wages. In particular, a study of the effects of minimum wages and related factors on the unemployment problems of youth was nearing completion at the beginning of 1970. The findings will contribute to policy development in this area.

Manpower Programs and Job Losers

Even during 1968, which was a year of substantial economic prosperity, almost 40 percent of the unemployed had lost their last job. This group has employment problems that are generally much more serious than those considered in the previous section. Often the loss of a job is caused by events beyond the worker's control, such as business failure, decreased workload, technological change, seasonal work, or forced retirement. Job losers typically spend more time finding new jobs than persons who are out of work for other reasons. In

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[5] For example, in a recent survey in 23 metropolitan and labor areas, the local employment service offices were asked to assess the importance of 12 reasons for difficulty in placing teenagers on jobs, based on fiscal 1969 experience. Of the 12 reasons, uncertainty about the draft was ranked the most important difficulty in placing 18- to 19-year-olds on year-round, full-time jobs.

1968, one-fourth of the men job losers (other than those who were on layoff) had been unemployed 15 weeks or more—much longer than entrants or job leavers.[6]

While there are many factors underlying job loss, it is significant that job losers had about a year and a half less schooling than those who were jobless for other reasons in 1968, as shown by the following figures:

	Median years of school completed by persons 20 years and over, 1968
Civilian labor force	12.3
All unemployed	12.0
Job losers	10.9
Job leavers	12.2
Entrants	12.3

This indicates a need for training and education to improve the employment record of the job loser.[7] The kinds of educational services required, however, are likely to be quite varied, given the many reasons for job loss. Many job losers need basic and remedial education to broaden their employment opportunities and to prepare them for vocational education. Job loss is also caused by a lack of vocational skills and by technological innovations which render former skills obsolete. At present, these diverse educational needs are met by a variety of categorical programs, such as those conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Neighborhood Youth Corps, the JOBS (Job Opportunities in the Business Sector) Program, the Adult Basic Education program, and Operation Mainstream. The proposed Manpower Training Act would eliminate much of this categorization and streamline manpower programs so that educational and other services could be tailored to the needs of individual participants.

SAFETY

A substantial loss of productive man-hours is due to job-related injuries and health problems. Because job injuries usually occur as a series of separate, isolated incidents, it is easy to overlook their overall impact. The fact is that the cost of accidents is tremendous—by some estimates amounting to nearly $8 billion in 1968 with a loss of man-days almost 10 times greater than strike losses. Moreover, the problem seems to be getting worse. After a long period of decline, job accident rates have been increasing in recent years.

The present Administration has taken steps to reduce this cause of joblessness. The Congress enacted the Construction Safety Act of 1969, which extends Federal safety protection to an industry that has traditionally had a high accident rate. In addition, a proposed comprehensive health and safety act has been sent to the Congress which would extend safety and health protection to most employees in private industry.

SEASONALITY AND INTERMITTENCY

Certain occupations and industries are characterized by a high degree of seasonality in their employment patterns. This problem is particularly acute in education, agriculture, and contract construction. Indeed, historical factors led to the offsetting seasonality in agriculture and education. When the economy was largely agricultural, the school year was chosen so that children would be available for farmwork during the summer months and in school during those months when there was less agricultural activity. Although the economy has become more industrialized and the relative size of the agricultural sector has declined, the traditional seasonal pattern in education persists and results in some serious labor market problems. The most important is the large summer influx of teenagers into the labor market in search of both regular and temporary employment. For example, in 1969 the civilian labor force of 16- to 19-year-olds averaged 8.8 million in June, July, and August, compared to an average of only 6.4 million for the other 9 months—a differential of 38 percent. This problem is eased to some extent by the NYC and other programs providing summer work and training, but a long-range solution would probably involve changes in the usual academic year. It is interesting to note that plans for a full-year academic calendar might be meshed advantageously with an expanded cooperative education program.

There is pronounced seasonality in both employment and unemployment in contract construction. From 1947 to 1969, February employment averaged about 85 percent of annual average employment in this industry. Over the same period, August employment averaged about 111 percent of annual average employment. There is a similar seasonality in unemployment. From 1964 to 1969, the February unemployment rate in construction was two to three times greater than the August unemployment rate. Moreover, on an annual basis, the unemployment rate in construction is typically about twice as high as it is in nonagricultural industries as a whole.

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[6] See Kathryn D. Hoyle, op. cit.

[7] Of course, no amount of training could totally eliminate the pattern indicated by the figures just cited. As long as there is any variation in educational achievement in the population, it can be expected that those at lower educational levels will be more susceptible to job loss than those at higher levels.

The loss of productive services due to seasonality in construction is high, by some estimates running to as much as a third of a million man-years on an annual basis. Seasonality in construction also appears to contribute significantly to overall unemployment. In January 1968, 29 percent of all insured unemployment was among workers whose last job was in the construction industry, whereas in August 1968, the proportion was only 9 percent. The difference suggests that about one-fifth of covered unemployment in January is attributable to seasonality in construction.

Both the loss of productive services and the unemployment attributable to seasonality in construction make this a serious problem. In December 1969, the Secretaries of Labor and Commerce reported the results of a study of this problem to the President and the Congress and suggested measures to lessen construction seasonality. Included in the recommendations are suggestions for relating national manpower policy to stabilization of construction industry employment:

—An expansion of apprenticeship training, skill enrichment, and minority employment programs to provide the range of skills needed by a more stable construction work force.

—The development of new financial incentives to encourage winter employment, perhaps by combining taxation of peak quarter payrolls with rebates to contractors against existing payroll taxes for winter quarter payrolls.

—The development of a local construction labor market information system by cooperative action of contractors, building trades unions, and the Department of Labor, in conjunction with computer job matching programs.

The additional manpower achieved from a reduction in seasonality will be greatly needed in the next decade to help reach the Nation's housing goal of an additional 26 million units.

Intermittency of employment in construction would persist even if seasonality could be eliminated. There is a significant loss in productive manpower because construction workers have to move to new projects and regions as work is completed on present jobs. Though this problem is more difficult than seasonality, its solution cannot be neglected as a long-range goal. This is another area in which a nationwide job bank may provide some significant improvements.

Manpower Policies During Periods of Increasing Unemployment

The previous sections have considered the role of manpower policies during periods of economic prosperity and increasing employment. It is equally important to ask what manpower policies can contribute if and when unemployment increases—a possibility that cannot be ignored. Even though there have been important gains in attenuating the business cycle through the use of fiscal and monetary policy in recent years, the business cycle has not been eliminated. Furthermore, fiscal and monetary policies needed to stifle inflation tend to have the undesirable side effect of creating some unemployment, at least in the short run.

For both quantitative and qualitative reasons, the task of combating unemployment presents greater difficulties for manpower policy in periods of economic slowdown than in more prosperous situations. First, the magnitude of the unemployment problem may put serious strains on the resources and capacity of manpower programs. Second, in periods of substantial unemployment the characteristics of the unemployed would change significantly. There would be many more unemployed people who already possess the skills and experience that the present manpower training and work programs provide and who would gain little from additional services of this kind. Clearly, these people would have to spend longer periods of time searching for satisfactory jobs and, with a reduction in job opportunities, finding employment for those who did go into manpower programs would be more difficult.

Nonetheless, there are a number of ways in which manpower efforts can cushion the impact of unemployment in periods of economic slowdown. Unemployment insurance is an important contributor to this goal, and its value as an economic stabilizer has long been recognized. In 1969, the Administration proposed legislation to strengthen the unemployment insurance system in a number of ways (discussed in more detail in the chapter on Income Maintenance and Work Incentives), including:

—Extending coverage to many workers not now protected (almost 17 million jobs are not now covered by unemployment insurance).

—Allowing unemployed workers who enroll in retraining programs to continue to receive benefit payments.

—Improving responsiveness to economic conditions by providing for an automatic extension of the maximum period for which benefits may be paid; this extension would be triggered when the national insured unemployment rate reaches 4.5 percent for 3 months.

—Increasing the taxable wage base for the unemployment insurance tax.

While it is true that there would be an increase in the number of unemployed persons who already have skills and work experience during an economic slowdown, it is also likely that there would be a much greater increase in unemployment among those with lower skill and education levels. For the latter group the loss of a job could act as a powerful motivation to seek additional skill training. Even if there were no jobs available for them immediately at the end of the training period, the training would serve to enhance the employability and earnings of participants over the longer run. These longer run effects are illustrated by the earnings data in table 1, based on social security records for a group of MDTA trainees who completed training in 1964 and a control group who dropped out of training. The changes in average calendar quarter earnings reflect increases in both the level and continuity of employment and the dollar amount of earnings when employed. In all cases (for institutional and on-the-job training and for both races), the absolute dollar change in earnings from the pretraining to the posttraining period was substantial, and earnings of completers increased appreciably more than those of noncompleters.[8] Further, in all cases

TABLE 1. PRETRAINING AND POSTTRAINING AVERAGE EARNINGS FOR COMPLETERS AND NONCOMPLETERS OF MDTA TRAINING, MEN AGED 25 TO 34 [1]

Item	Pretraining quarterly earnings, 1958–62	Posttraining quarterly earnings, 1965–68	Dollar gain	Percent change
INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING				
White				
Completers	$483	$1, 003	$520	108
Noncompleters	421	786	365	87
Negro				
Completers	395	915	520	132
Noncompleters	322	650	328	102
ON-THE-JOB TRAINING				
White				
Completers	708	1, 277	569	80
Noncompleters	520	975	455	88
Negro				
Completers	457	1, 131	674	147
Noncompleters	350	784	434	124

[1] The earnings data in this table and the accompanying discussion are based on quarterly earnings credits subject to social security taxes.

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[8] It should be noted, however, that the pretraining earnings of completers were, in all cases, above those of noncompleters.

but one (white, OJT enrollees), the percentage increase in the earnings of completers was notably greater than that of noncompleters. The same pattern held for women, although the level of earnings was consistently lower.

In recognition of these advantages, the proposed Manpower Training Act includes a provision that would automatically trigger a 10-percent increase in the funds appropriated under the act when the national unemployment rate reaches 4.5 percent for 3 consecutive months. This trigger has a number of desirable features:

—It increases the effectiveness of manpower programs as economic stabilizers by strengthening their countercyclical characteristics. Since training efforts cushion the impact of unemployment while reducing inflationary pressures, this countercyclical effect can be an especially useful aid to monetary and fiscal policy when the problem is one of fighting inflation and recession at the same time.

—The automatic increase in funds means that expanded manpower efforts can be put into operation fairly quickly and directly, thereby providing needed relief in the early stages of an economic slowdown.

—The trigger would provide an increase in the supply of training at the time when there is likely to be an increased demand for it—that is, when unemployment increases. It is complemented in this respect by the trigger device for extension of benefits in the proposed unemployed insurance legislation and by the provision that allows participation in training programs without loss of unemployment insurance benefits.

The wide variety of occupational and skill needs in the economy, in turn, creates a need for a wide range of training activities. In this respect, on-the-job training programs have an important advantage over institutional training because—in principle, at least—they can provide training in the full range of occupations needed in the economy, whereas institutional training is constrained to focus somewhat narrowly on selected occupations and skills.

Problems and Potentialities of Manpower Programs

It is clear from the foregoing discussion that manpower programs generally move in the right direction as an aid to fiscal and monetary policy in achieving the Nation's economic goals. Experience with these programs is too limited, however, to assess accurately just how significant a role they are likely to play in this respect. For example, with the exception of unemployment insurance, the existing manpower programs are largely untested in periods of cyclical downturn. As a result, there are a number of unanswered questions about how manpower efforts can best contribute to economic policy. This section considers some of these questions as they relate to the problems of inflation and unemployment.

MANPOWER PROGRAMS AND INFLATION

If manpower programs are to be used effectively as an adjunct to economic policy, it is important to develop a deeper understanding of the factors underlying the economic problems to which these policies are addressed. It is almost tautological to state that expansionary monetary and fiscal policies will cause inflationary rates of price increase when the economy is operating near capacity. To guide policies to deal with this problem, a precise, functional definition of "capacity" and an understanding of the factors that determine this capacity are needed.

It has been hypothesized that inefficiencies and inertias in labor markets limit the Nation's productive capacity and that manpower programs act to reduce such inefficiencies and inertias, thereby raising the inflationary boiling point of the economy. This argument, though plausible, is subject to some important qualifications. First, while it is obvious that there are such inertias in the labor market, it is less certain that they are the key determinant of capacity in all industries. Raw materials shortages, technological limitations on the rate of growth of capital stock, and possible inefficiencies in financial and other markets may be of even greater importance in the determination of productive capacity. This is a significant consideration for two reasons:

1. If these factors are indeed of critical importance, the effectiveness of manpower programs may be severely limited; and
2. Manpower programs may motivate the substitution of labor for other limiting factors of production which are necessary to assure longer run economic growth and expanding employment opportunities. Of course, such a result does not follow by necessity, but the possibility exists and should be explored in greater depth.[9]

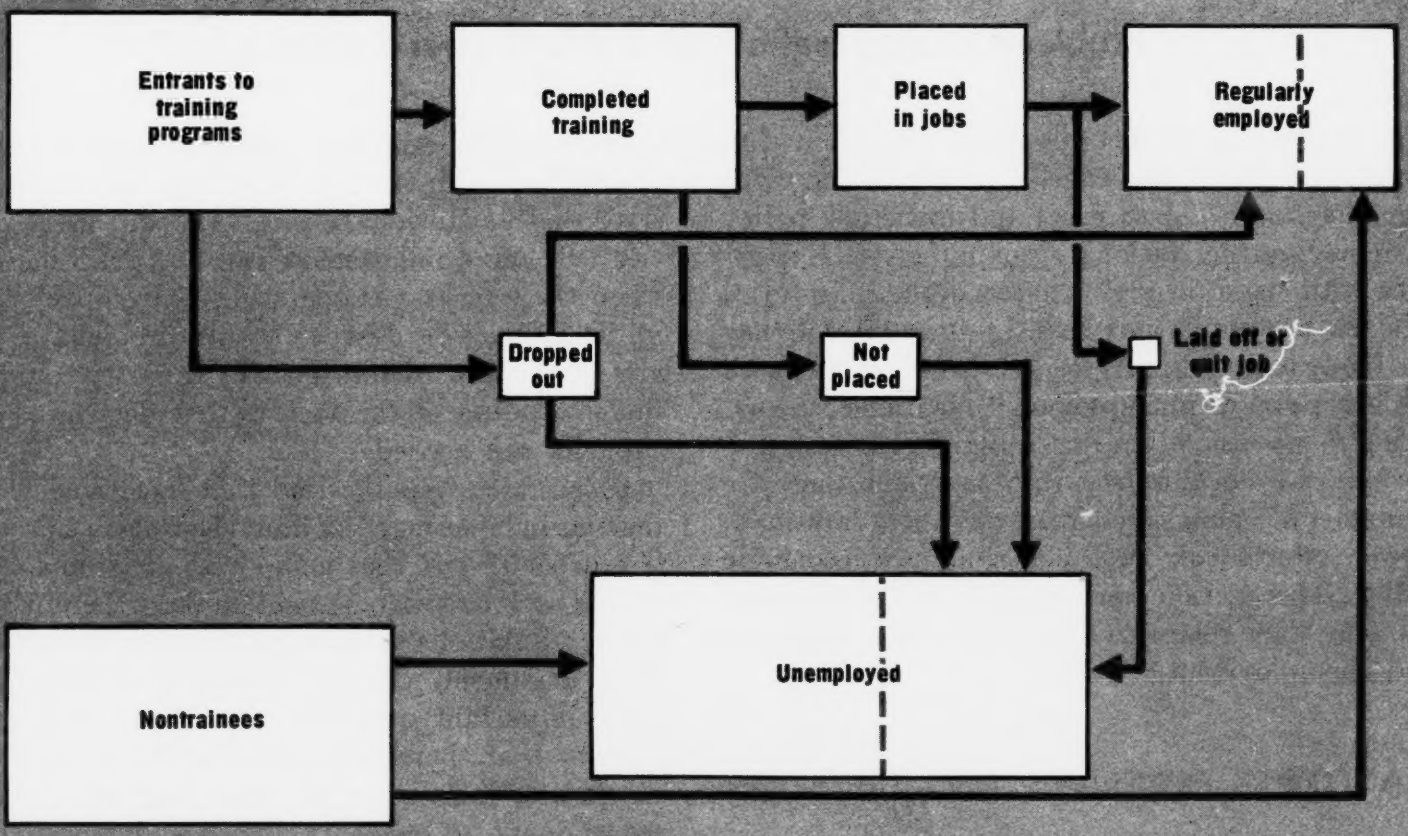
A second qualification is that, even if labor market inefficiencies are a significant determinant of economic capacity, meaningful reductions in these inefficiencies may be beyond the reach of any realistically sized manpower effort. Moreover, even if the size of the manpower activity were not a limitation, large increases may not yield benefits that justify the additional cost.

MANPOWER PROGRAMS AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Since manpower programs are, in large part, designed to reduce unemployment or at least cushion its impact, it is natural to look to these programs for help in periods of increasing unemployment. To form a realistic expectation of what the current programs might contribute in such a situation, however, it is necessary to consider their limitations. Such an analysis is also useful in indicating the kinds of improvements that might be made in manpower programs to increase their ultimate effectiveness.

CHART 2

Flow of manpower trainees into employment has leakages.



Source: Department of Labor.

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[9] It is important to recognize that even in a cooling economy there are areas and industries experiencing labor shortages and expanding employment. Similarly, the possibility of substituting labor for other inputs varies from industry to industry. Thus, these considerations suggest that to be most effective manpower efforts should be focused on areas of critical need.

The first consideration is an assessment of how successful these programs are in reducing unemployment. While such information exists for individual programs, this question is still largely unanswered on an economywide basis. It is possible, however, to get some rough idea of the factors that contribute to the employment success rate and their interrelationships by considering the flows of trainees through a program, as is shown in chart 2. As the chart illustrates, there are a number of leakages in the movement of trainees into employment. First, a certain fraction of entrants will drop out before completion. Second, of those who do complete the program, a certain proportion will not be placed in jobs. Next, some will lose or quit their jobs in the period following placement. The ratio of those who remain employed after this initial period to the total who entered the program can be thought of as the gross success rate.

This is a "gross" rate because it must be further adjusted for two other factors in order to get an estimate of the economywide impact on employment. The first factor is the employment success rate of a control group of individuals similar to the trainee group in all respects except that those in the control group do not receive training. The difference between the success rate of the control group and that of the trainee group is the success attributable to training.

The second factor is that some of those employed from the trainee group will get jobs that might otherwise have gone to nontrainees—that is, the training program tends to have a substitution effect which, in essence, reduces the success rate of the control group relative to the trainee group. When this final adjustment is made, the resulting rate may be taken as an estimate of the employment impact of the training program, at least in the short run.

The relation of these flows and leakages in determining the short-run employment success rate of training programs can be expressed in symbols as follows:

Let

N = the number entering training.

c = the fraction that complete training and obtain a job (initial placement rate).

a = the fraction losing jobs after placement (attrition loss).

r = the fraction of those in the nontrainee (control) group that become employed.

p = the fraction of total trainee placements that would otherwise have gone to nontrainees (substitution effect).

Using these fractions, the net employment success can be computed as follows:

Initial placements	cN
Less:	
Attrition loss	$-acN$
Control group success rate	$-rN$
Substitution effect	$-pcN$
Net employment success	$cN-acN-rN-pcN$

The net employment success rate is the ratio of this final total to the number entering training and may be written as:

$$\text{Net employment success rate} = c(1-a-p)-r.$$

Clearly, quantitative estimates of the various fractions are needed before the actual net employment success rate can be computed. Nonetheless, it is of interest to see what this rate might be, assuming some hypothetical values for these fractions. Assume that the attrition loss is 10 percent $(a=.1)$, the control group success rate is 20 percent $(r=.2)$, and the substitution effect is 10 percent $(p=.1)$. Then, in training programs with a very high initial placement rate of, say, 90 percent, the net success rate would be 52 percent. In other words, for every two people brought into training, net unemployment would be reduced by one person. For programs with a lower initial placement rate of, say, 40 percent, the net success rate would be about 12 percent, so that net employment would drop by one person for every eight brought into the program.

In addition to illustrating the relative importance of the various leakages in the training program, this analysis highlights the advantages of directing training efforts toward occupations in which there is a shortage of people with critical skills. In these occupations, it is likely that both the control group success rate and the substitution effect are close to zero. Then, assuming a 90 percent initial placement rate and a 10 percent attrition loss, the net success rate for the training program is over 80 percent—that is, for every 10 people brought into training net unemployment is reduced by eight people.

It is important to emphasize that this computation is designed to assess only the *short-run* net employment impact. It has already been pointed out that, while training programs may not result in jobs immediately following completion of the program, they have the advantage of improving the employability and productivity of participants in the longer run. Moreover, this analysis focuses only on the direct employment impact of the training programs and does not consider the improvement in earnings due to the higher wages and more stable employment of former traineers than of nontrainees.

With recognition that training programs have significant benefits even if they do not, in all cases, result in immediate employment, the next question to be considered is how much training could and should be supplied, assuming an increase in unemployment of, say, 750,000 to 1 million. Previous experience suggests that such a rise in the monthly level of unemployment would mean an increase of perhaps 3 to 4 million in the number of people experiencing unemployment at some time during the year. During the current fiscal year, first-time enrollments in manpower programs administered by the Department of Labor will total about 1.2 million. Since it would be unrealistic to assume a tripling in the size of the manpower effort in the short term, this effort would have to focus on specific groups rather than attempting to serve all jobless workers.

NEED FOR RESEARCH, EVALUATION, AND PROGRAM FLEXIBILITY

At this point a number of additional unanswered questions arise. Beside determining how much manpower programs should be expanded and who among the unemployed should be given priority for service, it would be necessary to decide (among other things) what kinds of training and other aid should be provided, when the added services should start and end, in what localities and regions of the country these efforts should take place, and how the training and other services could best be delivered.

Further analysis and research are needed to provide satisfactory answers to these and related questions, many of which apply to current program operations as well as to potential needs for manpower services in the event of rising unemployment. It is already clear, however, that flexibility in manpower programs is essential if these programs are to meet the diverse employability needs of disadvantaged individuals in different local areas and under changing economic conditions. Such flexibility would be made possible by the proposed Manpower Training Act. The decentralization and decategorization of manpower programs provided for in this proposed act would permit better tailoring of manpower efforts to the varied and changing needs of specific States, communities, and individuals.[10]

As progress is made in manpower programs—either under present legislation or under a new Manpower Training Act—it will be important to maintain careful and systematic evaluation activities which will help to guide needed changes of program direction toward the areas of greatest promise. In order to determine the effectiveness of the various programs and to ascertain the characteristics of those most successful and unsuccessful, the Department of Labor has placed increasing emphasis on evaluation. Its evaluative activities encompass or contemplate a variety of approaches, ranging from analysis of the broad impact of manpower programs (for example, on unemployment, the welfare rolls, and inflation), through assessment of the success of specific manpower programs in placing people in employment, to evaluation of the efficiency with which programs are being administered. In addition, the importance of evaluation is explicitly recognized in the proposed Manpower Training Act, which would require the Secretary of Labor to retain responsibility for identifying both satisfactory and exemplary performance in State and local manpower activities carried out under its provisions.

The recent program developments discussed in more detail in later chapters testify to the progress which has already been made by this Administration in the directions just suggested—in program assessment and evaluation, in restructuring and reorienting programs in accordance with the evaluation results, and in seeking greater program flexibility. This experience also underlines the need for further progress in these directions and indicates that such progress is feasible, given the needed legislative authorization.

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[10] The chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs provides a more detailed discussion of these and other aspects of the proposed Manpower Training Act.

THE PROMISE OF MANPOWER PROGRAMS

Altogether, it is clear from this and the following chapters that manpower programs have made, and will continue to make, important contributions to the solution of the Nation's social and economic problems. The experience with manpower efforts in the United States and other countries supports an optimistic assessment of what can be expected from these programs in the future. The Nation's economic goals for the 1970's combine a high rate of economic growth with a greater degree of price stability than has been experienced in the past. And, as this chapter points out, the promotion of economic stability and growth is an objective to which manpower programs can make special contributions. Besides reducing inflationary pressures, enhancing worker productivity, and increasing employment, these programs can focus intensively on the problems of those individuals and groups that do not share fully in the Nation's prosperity. The very recognition that economic objectives can be effectively served by more than the traditional fiscal and monetary devices is an important step in the realization of the broad promise of manpower programs.

2

THE EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT RECORD

THE EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT RECORD

Inflation and the efforts to restrain it were the dominant elements affecting the Nation's economy and labor markets in 1969. After 8 years of almost uninterrupted growth in output and employment, continued progress became noticeably more costly, and too much of the recent progress was, in fact, illusory.

The accomplishments of the long period of

ECONOMIC AND MANPOWER TRENDS, 1961 AND 1968–69

	1961	1968	1969	Average annual change 1961–68 Number	Average annual change 1961–68 Percent [1]	Average annual change 1968–69 Number	Average annual change 1968–69 Percent
(Billions)							
GNP in current dollars	$520.1	$865.7	$932.1	$49.4	7.6	$66.4	7.7
GNP in 1958 dollars	497.2	707.6	727.5	30.1	5.2	19.9	2.8
(Thousands)							
Total civilian employment	65,746	75,920	77,902	1,453	2.1	1,982	2.6
Nonfarm payroll employment [2]	54,042	67,860	70,139	1,974	3.3	2,279	3.4
Unemployment	4,714	2,817	2,831	−271	−7.1	14	.5
(Percent)							
Unemployment rate	6.7	3.6	3.5	....	....	....	....
Weekly earnings (private nonfarm production workers) in current dollars [2]	$82.60	$107.73	$114.61	$3.59	3.9	$6.88	6.4
Consumer price index (1957–59=100)	104.2	121.2	127.7	....	2.2	....	5.4
Weekly earnings in 1957–59 dollars [2]	$79.27	$88.89	$89.75	$1.37	1.6	$0.86	1.0

[1] Compounded at annual rates.

[2] 1969 data are preliminary.

growth were nonetheless impressive. More than 17 million workers had been added to nonfarm payrolls between early 1961, when the country turned the corner on its last recession, and the end of 1969—an expansion of more than 30 percent. Unemployment had dropped from its recession high of over 7 percent in 1961 to a 16-year low of 3.3 percent in early 1969.

These gains were the result of something more than a tenuous turn in the business cycle so characteristic of previous history, with lean years of recession and job loss regularly eating into the benefits acquired during the short periods of economic growth.

The success in maintaining growth over a record period of time was especially significant because it indicated that Government policies can be effective in preventing the downturns which, before this, had periodically disrupted the economy. These policies were carried out primarily through fiscal and monetary measures. They aimed specifically at achieving and sustaining desired rates of growth with price stability. However, they fell far short of meeting this last objective.

The hope that these policies would overcome the forces of the business cycle and, at the same time, restrain inflation has proved to be unduly optimistic, but it does appear that the cycle can be modified and blunted by Government action. Though the economy does not react quickly to individual measures to restrain inflation, the indications are that it can be predictably responsive to a combination of efforts directed, with resolution, to this general end. While the confidence of some in being able to "fine-tune" the economy was shown to be unwarranted, experience has taught improved techniques for sustaining and regulating growth.

The gains achieved over this long period were not without their price, however. Increasing demands on the Nation's human and material resources were accentuated by the need to produce and pay for a war that—like any war—preempted labor, materials, and production facilities without yielding goods and services to satisfy civilian demands. The combination of competing demands resulted in progressively higher price increases which began to threaten internal economic stability, produce inequities in the income status of large groups in the population dependent on relatively fixed income, distort the use of resources, and adversely affect the country's position in international trade and finance.

During the first 18 years of the post-World War II period (from 1947 to 1965), consumer price increases averaged less than 2 percent annually, despite short periods of sharper price rises. Consumer prices then spurted almost 3 percent per year between 1965 and 1967, more than 4 percent in 1968, and 5½ percent in 1969. Such a rising trend of prices was plainly unacceptable as national policy. After 1965, efforts were made to restrain the economy and bring inflationary pressures under control; but as a result of uncertainty about the magnitude of the effects and the fear of braking the economy too severely, these policies were not applied long enough or hard enough to be effective. Policies that periodically limited the growth of money and credit were followed by vigorous monetary expansion, and it was not until the beginning of 1968 that a surtax on incomes was imposed.

These early efforts at restraint seemed to have accomplished nothing more than a temporary lag in economic growth (evident as a mini-recession in the first half of 1967) with virtually no corresponding easing off in consumer price increases. With this background of experience, consistent policies to reduce demand pressures were intensified in 1969. By this time, the rapidly rising cost of living was capturing public attention, and impatience was being expressed at the seeming lack of response by the economy to the concerted official efforts to slow down price increases. But even with the stated determination to maintain fiscal and monetary restraint, responsible policy nevertheless precluded "knocking the economy on the head" or "locking the brakes and throwing the economy into a ditch."

Uncertainties about the course of the economy served to blunt the effects the Administration was attempting to achieve. Despite the drag of the 10-percent surtax enacted in the summer of 1968, consumers kept up their spending by cutting down their rate of savings, presumably confident that prices would continue to go up and that their incomes would soon rise again. In response to this continuing high demand, business spending rose sharply; this growth in investment helped stimulate economic activity, and greater economic activity, in turn, stimulated more spending. Employers, unsure of the impending slowdown and of its duration, apparently continued to hire workers as a hedge against future production requirements. On the wage front, labor negotiated high settlements, front-loading contracts with large first-year pay increases, in part to offset the effects of rapid price rises during the year as well as to compensate for possibly unfavorable developments in the future.

The result was an exceptionally large rise—in dollar terms—of the gross national product, which increased over the 1968 level by more than $66 billion, or 7.7 percent, to $932.1 billion in 1969. However, three-fifths of this GNP rise represented price increases; prices rose overall by 4.7 percent, compared with 4.0 percent in 1968.[1] The unsatisfactory price performance continued throughout the year, but the increases showed signs of abating in the last half.

Even though employment and earnings expanded during the year, the real income of Americans grew only slightly. The purchasing power of the average individual (personal disposable income per capita corrected for price change) rose by only 1.3 percent, compared with 3.1 percent in 1968 and the 3.7-percent yearly average for the 1961–1968 period.

Employment Trends and Their Economic Background

In retrospect, the evidence indicates that the efforts at restraining the economy began to take hold following the first quarter of 1969. However, while this was occurring, the tapering off in economic growth did not seem clear enough to resolve doubts about the persistence of the inflationary forces. During most of the year, trends in employment and unemployment, as well as in the economic activities which basically affected these trends, reflected these uncertainties.

If it was not easy to detect any sudden or sharply defined turn in 1969, it was perhaps easier to understand why no sharp turn was considered desirable. The background of 8 years of strong and sustained economic and employment growth had happily coincided with the need to provide jobs for a rapidly increasing population and with a growing national commitment to abolish poverty and maximize individual employment opportunity. Moreover, the growing reliance by Government on active application of economic policies to maintain stable growth had been largely vindicated by the economic gains which had been achieved.

Over the course of the expansion, poverty had been sharply reduced and real income had risen substantially for large numbers of Americans. More people were moving into occupations having greater security, status, and earnings, and those jobs which had less were growing scarcer. Workers were able to produce more and to buy more goods and services. A variety of manpower programs had been developed to assist those who were not sharing, or not sharing rapidly enough, in this progress. With their effectiveness augmented by the growing demand for workers, these manpower programs were beginning to increase the employability and upgrade the productivity of many workers who, unaided, could not have benefited by the general expansion.

The problem then in 1969 was not just to halt inflation but to restore the conditions which would permit renewed economic growth on a more sustainable and equitable basis. Hence, the developments during the year reflected the interplay of the forces of a booming economy and of the slowly prevailing Government efforts to restrain its growth temporarily, while maintaining sufficient resilience for a resumption of stable expansion after the immediate problem of inflation has been overcome.

RAPID GROWTH IN EARLY 1969

The annual averages for 1969 do not reflect the gradual slowdown in pace that occurred during the year. At the beginning of 1969, the economy continued the strong growth of the last part of 1968. GNP in the first quarter of 1969 rose by $16 billion (in current dollars) to the $900-billion mark (seasonally adjusted annual rate) with all major components sharing in the rise and an outstanding $20 billion increase in final demand [2]—one of the largest quarterly increases on record. (See chart 3.) A rise in social security taxes (effective in January 1969) and additional tax payments resulting from retroactive liabilities under the surcharge did not deter consumers; the increase of $11 billion in their expenditures was about double the rise in the 1968 fourth quarter. An upswing in service expenditures accounted for about half of the increase.

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[1] This measure of price increase—the "implicit price deflator"—represents the average price change of transactions reflected in the gross national product, weighted by the actual volume of transactions. It is distinct from the Consumer Price Index and Wholesale Price Index, which measure price changes for fixed proportions of specific products in retail and primary markets respectively.

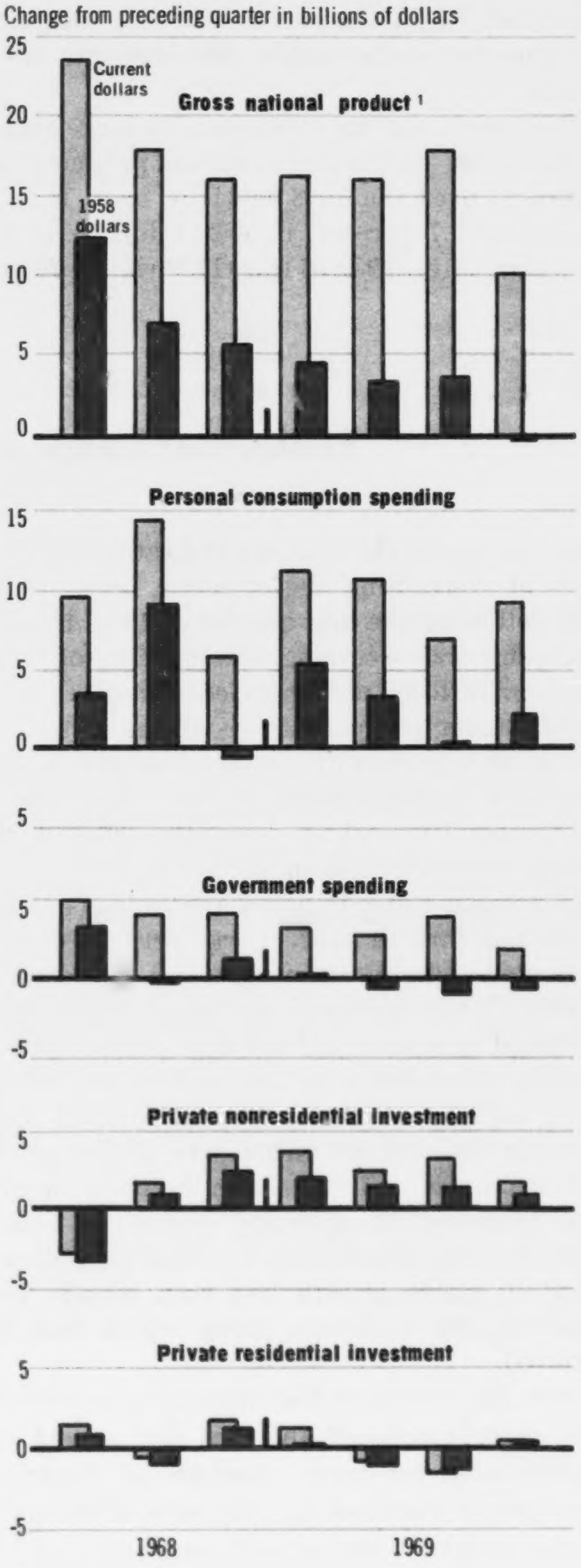
Fixed investment also continued to expand strongly, rising by about $5 billion, nearly the same amount as in the fourth quarter of 1968. Apparently counting on the continuation of long-term growth in demand, business spent some $3 billion more in each quarter for plant and equipment, even though industry had been operating below optimum capacity. Although investment in the modernization and expansion of capital equipment tends to be counterinflationary in the long run, the large increases in such investment in 1969 tended to aggravate inflationary pressures at the time, occurring as they did in tight labor and capital markets. Moreover, despite the continued high investment, productivity growth fell sharply, thereby contributing to an acceleration of unit costs. Spending on residential construction also increased in the first quarter of 1969, but the effects of an especially tight credit squeeze became evident as construction activity declined in succeeding quarters.

Government purchases were not as much of a stimulating force in 1969 as in previous years. A rise of some $3 billion in the first quarter of 1969 was one of the smallest in recent years, and all of it was in State and local government spending. Federal Government purchases, in fact, showed a small decline (because of reduced defense expenditures), following a rise of only $1 billion in the fourth quarter of 1968.

These developments in the economy were reflected in the employment situation, and the year began with an exceptionally strong demand for labor and an unusually large influx of women and young workers into the labor force in response to this demand. The economy provided jobs not only for these additional workers, but also for others

CHART 3

Quarterly changes in GNP and selected components, 1968-69.



¹Total GNP includes changes in inventories and net exports, not shown separately.

Source: Department of Labor, based on data from the Department of Commerce.

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[2] Final demand differs from GNP by the exclusion of changes in business inventories from the total.

among the unemployed, with the result that the unemployment rate dropped to a post-Korean war low of 3.3 percent during the first quarter of the year.

So strong was the demand for labor in the closing months of 1968 and the early months of 1969 that total employment rose by nearly 1.8 million (seasonally adjusted) between September 1968 and March 1969. This 6-month gain in employment was actually larger than the average annual increases of the past 10 years. Such a pace of employment growth could not be sustained, and much smaller employment increases took place during the remainder of the year. (See chart 4.)

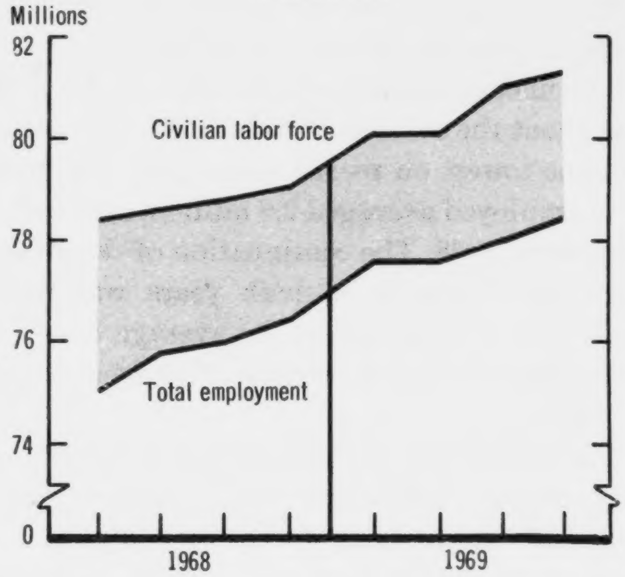
THE BEGINNING OF A SLOWDOWN

Following the strong first quarter, signs of a slowdown accumulated quarter by quarter, except in business spending. Although gross national product continued to rise substantially in current dollar terms, real GNP showed below-normal growth. Both consumer and wholesale prices accelerated during the second quarter and continued to rise substantially throughout the rest of the year; however, the rate of increase slackened somewhat in the last two quarters. Industrial production declined each month after a peak in July; employment increases at the close of the year were smaller than at the beginning; and the unemployment rate moved up to about 4 percent in September and October. In the final 2 months of the year, however, the unemployment rate failed to reflect the slowdown, and dropped back close to the low levels of early 1969.

CHART 4

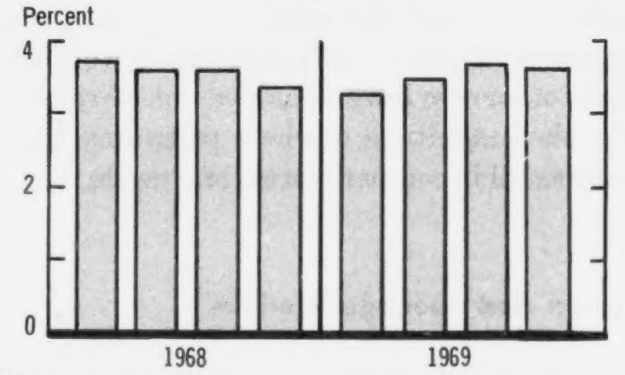
Employment gains did not keep pace with labor force growth during 1969...

Labor force and employment [1]
(Quarterly data)



so unemployment rate rose slightly.

Unemployment rate
(Quarterly data)



[1] 16 years of age and over.

Source: Department of Labor.

During 1968, some analysts thought they had detected the sought-for slowdown in a reduced rate of GNP growth; but the evidence was neither persuasive nor pervasive. During 1969, however, a variety of economic developments following the first quarter began to spell out and confirm the message that economic and employment growth were slowing down—although there were some contradictory developments even then. While the gross national product in current dollars rose by over 7 percent in both the second and third quarters (on an annual rate basis), real GNP moved up by only 2 percent. Part of the third quarter GNP rise could be attributed to a Federal Government pay increase for civilian workers and military personnel. But, while consumers continued to spend substantially, growth in their spending slackened in the third quarter, especially for durable goods.

By the final quarter of the year, a mild but general slackening became more apparent throughout the economy, with only business spending continuing to provide strength. Consumers curbed their buying somewhat, while the strong rise in business investment in plant and equipment equaled that of the previous quarter. Residential investment continued to move downward, as did Federal Government spending.

EMPLOYMENT GROWTH OVER THE YEAR

Total employment rose to 77.9 million in 1969, an increase of 2.0 million over the previous year. Despite the weakness in the latter part of 1969, this gain was still above the average annual increase during the 1961–68 period of sustained economic expansion (about 1.5 million).

The unemployment rate for 1969, at 3.5 percent, was about the same as that for 1968 (3.6 percent), and the lowest on record since 1953. The number of unemployed averaged 2.8 million, also about the same as in 1968. The continuation of the generally tight labor market in both years was reflected mainly in a reduction in the average duration of unemployment to 7.9 weeks in 1969 from 8.5 weeks in 1968.

The additional workers required by the economy during 1969 were drawn almost entirely from outside the labor force. By contrast, during most of the 1960's, a substantial proportion of the workers added to the employment rolls came from the unemployed. With unemployment at a 16-year low in early 1969, it became increasingly difficult to find qualified workers—especially adult male workers—among the jobless. Although training programs helped some unemployed workers who might otherwise have remained out of work to get jobs, the magnitude of these programs was relatively small in comparison to total needs.

Women and Teenage Workers

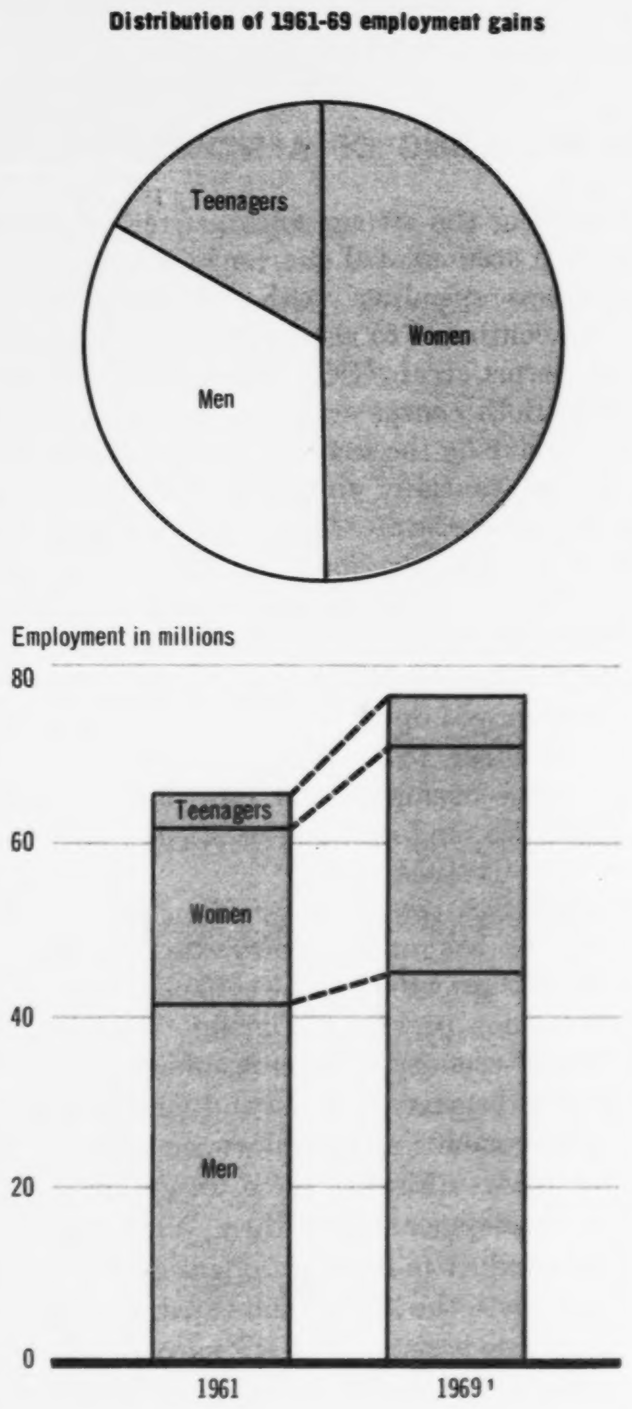
Consequently, most of the employment increase was among women and teenagers. In 1969 employment of adult women rose by 1.1 million and that of teenagers by 335,000—these groups together accounted for almost 3 out of every 4 persons added to the employed work force during the year.

Although employment of adult women has been increasing rapidly for many years (accounting for half of the job gain since 1961, as shown in chart 5), the gains of the past 3 years have been exceptionally large. With the latest gain, women now hold 37 percent of the Nation's jobs, compared with 28 percent they held in the immediate post-World War II period. This change in proportion means that employment of women has increased by 13 million since 1947 and employment of men by 7.8 million.

Of the 1.1 million additional adult women employed in 1969, nearly one-third were 20 to 24 years of age. Not only has their population been

CHART 5

Women and teenagers accounted for two-thirds of 1961-69 employment growth.



¹ Preliminary.

Source: Department of Labor.

increasing, but their labor force participation has also been growing rapidly in recent years. The somewhat unusual recent changes in participation of women in the labor force are discussed in greater detail later in this chapter.

Teenagers (16 to 19 years old) accounted for about 335,000, or one-sixth, of the employment increase in 1969. Annual job gains by this group have varied widely during this decade; their employment increased strongly but irregularly until 1966 and then showed no gain during the next 2 years, as the increase in the Armed Forces combined with slower growth in the youth population served to reduce greatly the flow of young people into the labor market. During 1968–69, teenage employment again increased slightly, as population increases became the dominant factor.

Adult male employment increased by about 530,000 in 1969, only slightly less than their job gains in each of the previous 2 years, but in line with the group's average annual job gains since 1961. About two-fifths of the employment increase among adult men in 1969 was among those 20 to 24 years of age. These young men, the product of the baby boom following World War II, are now coming into the civilian labor force in increased numbers, and their rate of entry will gather momentum if the present reduction in the Armed Forces continues.

Employment of Negroes increased by about 215,000 in 1969—a 2½-percent gain, approximately equal to the gain in white employment. Almost two-thirds of the increase in Negro employment was among adult Negro women and about one-fourth among adult Negro men.

Part-Time Workers

An increase in the part-time work force contributed over one-third of the employment expansion in 1969. Most of those who worked part time chose to do so. The number of such part-time workers has been increasing at a much faster rate than total employment in recent expansionary years and passed the 10 million mark in 1969.

This rapid increase in part-time employment does not necessarily mean a scarcity of full-time employment opportunities. In fact, some employers have had to turn to part-time help because, in a time of relatively low unemployment, they could not find workers available on a full-time basis.

Slightly over one-half (or 5.5 million) of the workers who voluntarily accepted part-time jobs in 1969 were adult women. For them, the greater availability of part-time jobs in recent years has greatly facilitated increased participation in the labor force. Adult men accounted for about 2 million of those usually working part time. Teenagers made up the balance (some 2.8 million); part-time work for them has almost doubled since 1963.

In addition to the 10 million persons who chose part-time work, there were 1 million workers regularly working part time who wanted full-time work, and an additional 1 million persons regularly working full time who were temporarily confined to part-time work because of economic factors affecting their jobs. Altogether then, there were about 2 million workers in 1969 who, although wanting full-time work, were either regularly or temporarily employed only part time.

Industry and Occupation of Employment

All the employment gains posted in 1969 were accounted for by nonfarm industries. Farm employment continued its long-term decline, dropping by 210,000 over the year to 3.6 million in 1969.[3] The average decline in farm employment has been close to 200,000 a year for the past two decades, with the result that the number of agricultural jobs has been cut in half, and its proportion of total employment has come down from nearly 14 percent to about 4.6 percent in that period. The main factors in this decline have been the continuing mechanization of farming processes, which has reduced the viability of small farms, and the availability of other, more attractive jobs.

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[3] These figures do not include individuals who do some farmwork but who work mainly at jobs in nonfarm industries.

INDUSTRY DEVELOPMENTS

Total nonagricultural employment (including self-employed and unpaid family workers, as well as wage and salary workers) increased by about 2.2 million in 1969, reaching a record of 74.3 million. Despite a slow rate of growth in the second half of the year, the year's average gain in total nonagricultural employment actually exceeded the increases of the previous 12 years.

Nonfarm payroll employment also rose by 2.3 million, passing the 70-million mark for the first time. (Payroll employment excludes self-employed and unpaid family workers but counts workers in as many jobs as they may hold.) The 1969 increase in the number of payroll workers was about in line with the increases of the previous 2 years.

Consistent with the general pattern, the big spurt in payroll employment actually had begun in the closing months of 1968 and continued into the early months of 1969. During the September 1968-March 1969 period, monthly gains in payroll employment averaged about 250,000. These advances were spread across most major industries, with the sharpest rates of increase taking place in the service industries (particularly in private medical services), and in construction, trade, and State and local governments (particularly in public education). (See chart 6.)

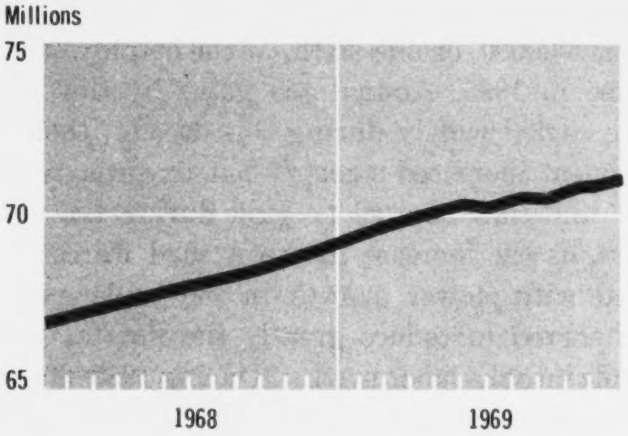
Previous job gains of such rapidity had last been seen between 1965 and 1966; at that time, full-time employment in manufacturing industries accounted for proportionally more of the total job gain, and this resulted in a sharper increase (than in early 1969) in the real output of goods and services.

Beginning in the second quarter of 1969, the pace of employment growth slackened considerably in most major industries. During the balance of the year, nonfarm payroll employment made only moderate gains, as the sharp gains in economic activity which had begun in late 1968 began to diminish.

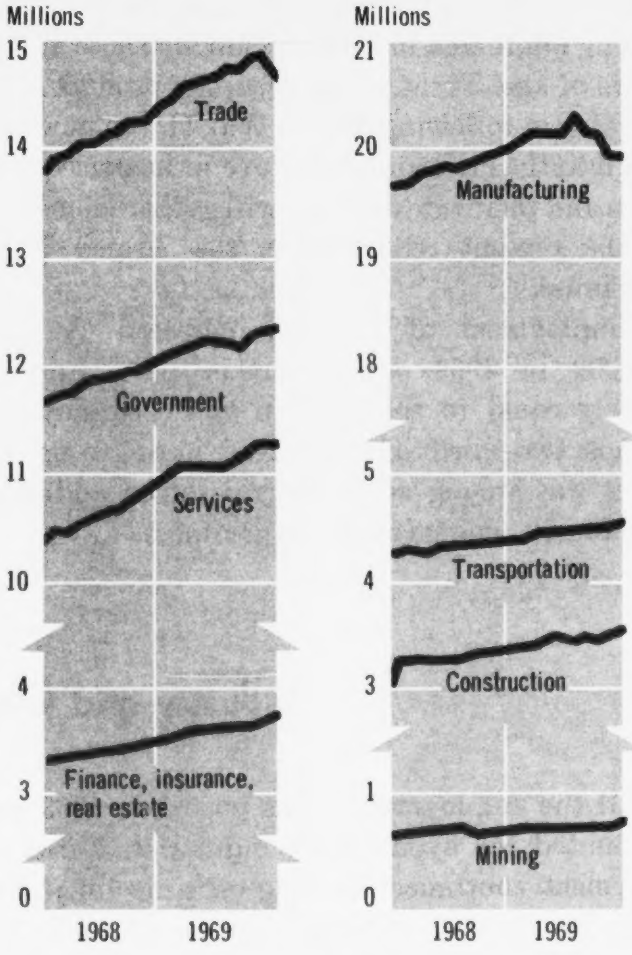
The average workweek, which has been gradually growing shorter over the years in the private nonfarm economy (but not in manufacturing), remained substantially unchanged in 1969. Rank-and-file workers on private nonagricultural payrolls averaged 37.7 hours a week, about the same as in 1968. Manufacturing and trade showed slight

CHART 6

Growth in nonfarm employment faltered during 1969[1].



but job expansion continued in most service-producing industries while there were weaknesses in manufacturing and construction.



[1] Data for the 2 most recent months are preliminary.

Source: Department of Labor.

declines from 1968, while construction and mining increased slightly.

The following are capsule profiles of job developments in major industries in 1969.

Construction

Activity in this industry was very strong in early 1969, and the unemployment rate for construction workers reached a 16-year low. From about mid-1969, construction employment began to level off, as housing activity softened and private homebuilding declined sharply. Nevertheless, the average gains for 1969 in this industry remained impressive, with more than 140,000 new workers added to payrolls. In addition, the industry showed an increase of 0.6 hour in the average workweek which, at 38 hours for 1969, was the highest since 1953. The employment level in construction, at 3.4 million in 1969, was 21 percent higher than in 1961.

Manufacturing

Practically all of the employment gain in manufacturing took place in the first half of 1969; during the rest of the year demand slackened. Most of the 21 major manufacturing industries experienced somewhat slower employment growth as the year progressed. However, manufacturing employment averaged 20.1 million in 1969, the first year it has topped the 20-million mark.

The unemployment rate among workers whose last job was in manufacturing, which had declined from 3.3 percent in 1968 to 3.1 percent in the first quarter of 1969, rose to 3.7 percent in the final quarter of 1969. Trends in the workweek were indistinct during the year; for the year as a whole, both the straight-time workweek for production workers (37 hours) and average overtime (3.6 hours) were about the same as in 1968. Toward the latter part of 1969, however, overtime hours were running somewhat below this average.

Trade

After substantial growth in the first 6 months of 1969, employment gains in trade moderated somewhat in the second half. For the year as a whole, however, employment in trade, which is a big user of part-time help, showed an increase of about 560,000 workers—to a total of 14.6 million. The increased reliance on part-time help, however, brought about a further decline (to 35.6 hours) in the average workweek for this industry in 1969, down from 36.0 hours in 1968.

Services

Unlike other major industries, employment in services continued to increase in the latter part of 1969 at nearly the same pace as in the early months of the year. A brief lull in growth during the summer may have been due to difficulty in obtaining seasonal workers. The resumption in employment growth after August resulted in a year-to-year gain of about 510,000 new workers. At 11.1 million in 1969, employment in the services industry was 45 percent higher than in 1961.

Government

In 1969, employment at all levels of government combined rose by 380,000—well below the gains of recent years—to 12.2 million workers. Growth in State and local governments continued to expand but slowed as the year progressed, and Federal Government employment moved up only slightly under the restraints of stringent budget and staffing limitations.

OCCUPATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

Blue-collar employment, which has grown very little in recent years, increased substantially in 1969 despite the reduction in industrial production which took place in the second half of the year. The number of workers in blue-collar occupations totaled 28.2 million for the year, an increase of about 715,000 over 1968.

Even with a sharp overall increase in the employment of operatives and laborers in 1969, there was nonetheless strong evidence of occupational upgrading among Negro men and apparently also among Negro women (as discussed in the chapter on Toward Equal Employment Opportunity). Employment of unskilled and semiskilled workers has typically been most responsive to cyclical developments in the economy. With the tight labor market which prevailed in early 1969, many employers reached further into the ranks of the unemployed and those out of the labor force for unskilled workers to meet their staffing needs.

As in past years, the proportion of workers engaged in white-collar work continued to expand in 1969, rising by almost 1.3 million over the year to 36.8 million. By year's end, close to one-half of the Nation's work force was employed in white-collar occupations. The increase in white-collar employment in 1969 occurred almost entirely in professional and technical and in clerical occupations. Employment in managerial positions rose only slightly, while the number of sales workers remained practically unchanged over the year. These changes within the white-collar occupations were in line with trends in the past several years.

Employment in service occupations (as distinct from service industries) increased by approximately 150,000 in 1969, despite a decline of about 95,000 in employment in private household jobs. This decrease in private household workers continued a downtrend which has persisted for the past 5 years—reflecting the emergence of many new employment opportunities for Negro women in operative, clerical, and service jobs of other kinds. These jobs generally offer greater employment stability, more uniform and predictable working conditions, and higher pay than private household jobs.

EMPLOYMENT GROWTH AND GOVERNMENT SPENDING

The advance in economic well-being in recent years, which was reflected primarily in more jobs and higher income, has been related not only to the level and trend of private business activity but also to government spending at all levels, and particularly to the effect of Federal monetary and fiscal policies. In recent years there has been increasing reliance on Federal programs and policies to stimulate economic growth by raising demand for goods and services. The long period of rapid economic and employment expansion the country has enjoyed since 1961 is generally regarded as a demonstration of the effectiveness of these activities. Beginning in 1965, further economic stimulation was no longer needed; government spending was, in fact, having adverse effects on an economy in which civilian demand was growing rapidly while the increasing tempo of war in Vietnam diverted resources from civilian uses.

Although government spending is an instrument of economic policy, specific expenditures are the outcome of specific needs for national security, welfare, education, transportation, police and fire protection, and so on. These needs, both for improving services and for expanding them to provide for a rapidly growing population, have required increased outlays by Federal, State, and local governments.

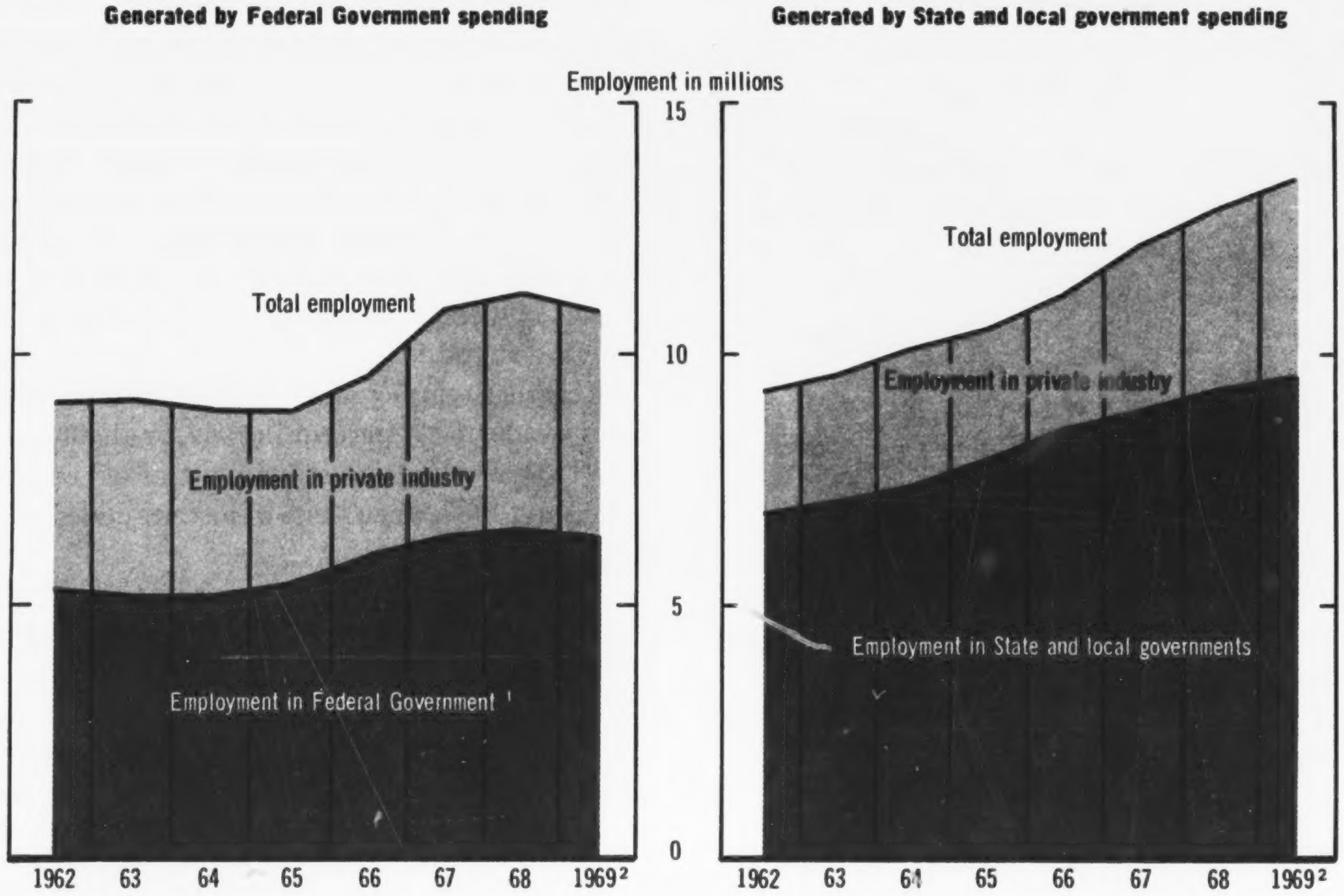
Against this framework of domestic and international needs, sharply increased spending by all levels of government has significantly affected employment growth. In 1969 preliminary figures indicate that a total of 24.4 million men and women—accounting for almost 1 out of every 3 persons either working or in military service during the year—held jobs that were generated by government expenditures. Sixteen million of these—including 3.4 million military personnel—were employed directly by Federal, State, and local governments. Of this number, 9.6 million were on the payrolls of State and local jurisdictions, and the rest were employed by the Federal Government. (See chart 7.) In addition, 8.4 million jobs in private industry resulted from government expenditures for goods and services ranging from jet bombers to paper clips.

Although the total number of jobs dependent on government spending continued to rise in 1969, the increase amounted to only 400,000—less than half the average annual increase from 1962 to 1968 and only one-fourth the average rise during 1965–68. The slowdown in growth last year stemmed primarily from a reduction in defense-related employment, which partially offset the continued rise in jobs attributable to spending by State and local jurisdictions and to nondefense outlays by the Federal Government.

Employment associated with State and local spending rose by about 600,000 during 1969, about the same annual pace as since 1962. As in past years, the bulk of State and local outlays was for education, especially for teaching personnel.

CHART 7

Employment generated by State and local governments has expanded steadily, although federally generated jobs declined in 1969.



¹ Includes military personnel.

² Preliminary.

Source: Department of Labor, based on data from the Department of Commerce.

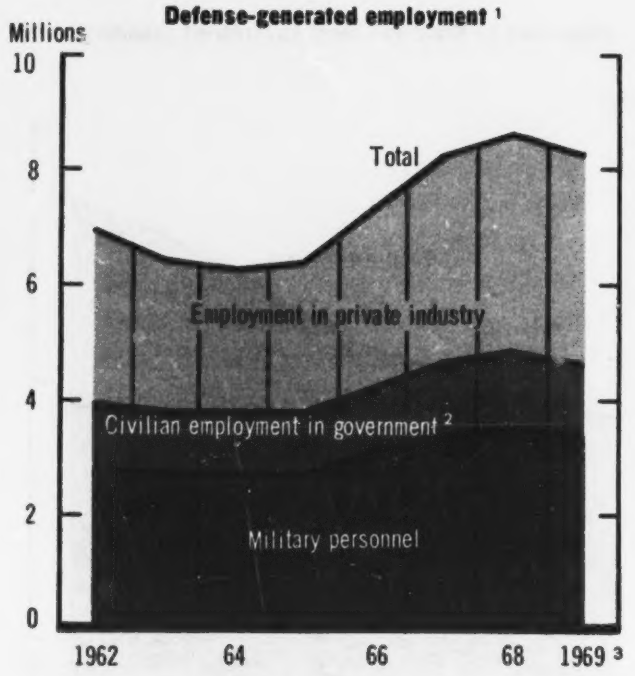
The major departure in 1969 from the trend of the past 7 years resulted from declines in defense procurement. From 1966 to 1967, defense outlays increased by one-third in response to the escalation of the Vietnam conflict and the rapid buildup of defense materiel. Their rate of growth subsequently slowed—to around 5 percent between 1967 and 1968 and to less than 1 percent in 1969.

The tapering off in Pentagon spending was paralleled by a record level of inventory accumulation in the defense products industries (ordnance, communication equipment, and aircraft and parts), which in September 1969 amounted to $12.9 billion, double the level of 1965. Moreover, indications are that the tapering off in defense spending will continue in 1970. This is suggested by the trend of military prime contract awards, which also points to a declining demand for defense workers in 1970. In the third quarter of 1969 these awards amounted to $8.8 billion (seasonally adjusted), a decline of over $2 billion from the same period in 1968.

The softening in defense procurement was reflected in an estimated reduction of 400,000 defense-related jobs in 1969—the first time since 1963–64 that such employment has decreased (see chart 8).

CHART 8

After 3 years of steady expansion, defense-generated employment declined in 1969.



¹ Includes the Atomic Energy Commission.

² Includes government enterprises selling products and services to the public.

³ Preliminary.

Source: Department of Labor, based on data from the Department of Commerce.

The reduction in defense manpower was about evenly split between private industry and direct government employment, where cutbacks amounted to about 100,000 civilian jobs and about the same number of military personnel.

The employment reductions imputed to a slowdown in defense procurement are shown, to a lesser extent, in the actual employment records of three industries engaged primarily in manufacturing defense products. These industries—ordnance, aircraft and parts, and communication equipment—also produce varying proportions of civilian goods, and hence are subject to potentially offsetting influences stemming from military and civilian demand.[4]

Altogether, employment in these industries declined by about 2½ percent in 1969, or about 40,000 jobs. This development stands in marked contrast to 1966 and 1967, when these industries added about 180,000 jobs a year.

All of the loss in 1969 was borne by the ordnance and aircraft and parts industries, where output and employment are more dependent on defense than in the communication equipment industry. The latter industry, whose employment remained about the same over the year, reflected the effect of civilian demand for TV and radio equipment.

Earnings, Collective Bargaining, and Wage Developments

Under the conditions of tight labor markets and rising living costs which prevailed during most of 1969, particularly in the first half of the year, it was natural that workers would ask for and employers offer higher wages. As a result, workers' earnings increased at a faster rate in 1969 than in previous years.

Average hourly earnings for rank-and-file workers in the private nonfarm economy rose by 19 cents between 1968 and 1969, to $3.04 per hour. Since there was little change in average hours worked per week, the increase of about $7 per week (to a total of $115) resulted entirely from the increase of 6½ percent in hourly earnings.

Rising prices took their toll of these increases, with the result that the real gain in average weekly earnings for all rank-and-file workers amounted to barely 1 percent when adjusted by the Consumer Price Index. (See chart 9.) Although the rate of price increase became more moderate towards the close of 1969, the over-the-year increase of about 5½ percent erased nearly all of the wage gains achieved by workers during the year. Because of these continued price pressures, and additional income and social security taxes, real take-home pay remained virtually unchanged for a second consecutive year. The increased wages did not, therefore, result in any additional purchasing power for the average wage earner.

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[4] Employment data for these industries are not directly comparable with the data described above on employment generated by defense spending. The data for the three defense products industries are based on actual establishment surveys of total payroll employment in these industries and reflect the net effects of both civilian and military demand and of employer practices which may not be directly related to demand. Although current figures are not available, it was estimated that defense work in 1967 accounted for half the jobs in communication equipment, 6 out of 10 in aircraft and parts, and 7 out of 10 in ordnance.

The employment attributed to defense expenditures in the preceding discussion includes both civilian and military personnel. Except for government employment, based on direct estimates, the employment figures are imputed from national income accounts.

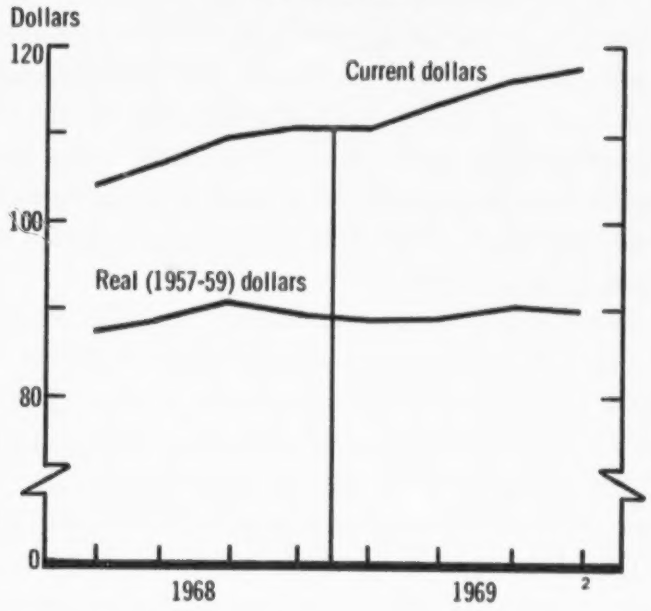
Among the major industries, construction registered the sharpest year-to-year rise in weekly earnings (10 percent). This rise reflected both higher wage rates and a longer workweek. A similar combination brought about higher weekly earnings in mining and in finance, insurance, and real estate. Above-average gains in weekly earnings for nonsupervisory workers in manufacturing and trade stemmed entirely from increases in hourly earnings.

Collective bargaining negotiations in 1969 mirrored the increased pressures on workers and employers. The median wage and benefit package agreed to under large contracts during the year called for cost increases averaging 8.2 percent a year over the life of these settlements.[5] By comparison, the average package contracted in 1968 increased costs by 6.6 percent per year; 5.5 percent in 1967; and 4.7 percent in 1966.

CHART 9

Mounting prices have offset rising dollar earnings in the past 2 years.

Weekly earnings of production workers[1] in private nonfarm economy
(Quarterly data)



[1] Data relate to production workers in mining and manufacturing; to construction workers in contract construction; and to nonsupervisory workers in trade and finance, insurance, and real estate.

[2] Preliminary.

Source: Department of Labor.

Paradoxically, the influence of these high settlements on the general level of wages was smaller than in previous years, because 1969 was a year of relatively light collective bargaining activity. In fact, the median wage-rate change actually placed into effect under major union agreements amounted to an estimated 5.0 percent, slightly below the gain of 5.5 percent in 1968. This seeming inconsistency is explained by the fact that most of the 11 million workers covered by these agreements—that is, agreements involving 1,000 or more workers in private nonagricultural employment—received deferred wage raises and/or cost-of-living escalator adjustments provided under long-term settlements agreed to in 1968 and earlier years. Typically, these deferred increases are smaller than the first-year increases.

Partly because fewer workers were covered by contracts subject to negotiation during the year, industrial strife decreased somewhat in 1969. The worktime lost as a direct result of strikes declined to 0.25 percent of total worktime from a decade high of 0.28 percent in 1968. Some 45 million man-days were lost owing to strike idleness in 1969, about 10 percent less than the 49 million man-days lost the year before. About two-fifths of these man-days lost were stacked up in the final 3 months of the year, as the largest strike of 1969—involving approximately 150,000 General Electric workers—continued from mid-October through the year's end.

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[5] Data for 1969 are preliminary. The estimates of wage and fringe benefit package increases cover settlements in the private nonagricultural sector involving 5,000 or more workers and are based on the actual timing of the changes going into effect during the life of the contract.

Trends in Productivity and Unit Labor Costs

It may become possible in future years to disentangle the conflicting trends of 1969 and assess their net effects on economic growth and the employment situation. In 1969 one could only surmise that a combination of the continuing pressures of inflation, the mounting restraints which ultimately began to check these pressures, and the uncertainties they produced had adverse effects on productivity and unit labor costs. Output per man-hour in the private economy grew at a significantly slackened pace—less than 1 percent, the smallest increase in 13 years.

The pattern of developments emerged early in the year. As production growth began to slow down there was an unusual turnabout in the relationship among output, employment, and man-hours. While real growth in output of goods and services continued to decelerate (at least as measured in the national income accounts), labor input in man-hours grew steadily. In the first half of 1969, total man-hours in the private economy had increased as much as during the entire previous year; output of goods and services, however, increased only two-thirds as fast as man-hours. As a result, for the first two quarters of 1969, productivity actually declined. Productivity growth was reestablished in the next two quarters, as employers began retrenching on their man-hour schedules to bring them into line with actual output; however, the gains in productivity were not sufficient to provide a large increase for the year as a whole.

Several factors may explain the unusual performance of the economy in 1969, one of which was the uncertainty on the part of producers that the battle against inflation was being won. Although government fiscal and monetary policies were geared to bring about a slowing down of an overheated economy, private business was not dissuaded from continuing to invest heavily in both plant and equipment. It appears that as output slowed, employers exhibited greater than normal lags in adjusting their work force. Although this psychological response based on expectations cannot be documented, the pattern of overall output and employment activity suggests that employers were not convinced that the economic slowdown would be of long duration and saw no reason to doubt there would be a quick resumption of the long-standing upward trend in demand. Preparing for the day when labor would be needed to meet future production requirements, employers may have been retaining as many workers as possible.

Other contributory factors can also be conjectured: High quit rates accompanying the tight labor market, which reduced production efficiency; the tendency to augment and retain overhead staff whose work is not immediately reflected in output; and the general aptitude for productivity growth to suffer when business activity begins to slow down.

The hesitancy in trimming labor requirements during the first half of the year may also have reflected the increased social awareness of American businessmen and, presumably, community pressures on them. In the past 2 or 3 years, many businessmen have made enormous efforts to recruit and hire the hard-core unemployed from the ghettos. The hiring of these workers, as well as of specialized workers needed in expanding numbers, represented a large investment in both time and recruiting and training costs. In the absence of an unmistakable break in the upward trend of demand, employers were understandably reluctant to reduce their hiring or to separate newly hired workers. As the year progressed, however, and the signs of a slowdown were becoming more evident, employers were forced to change their attitude. Cost pressures began to mount, causing employers to slow down their rate of hiring.

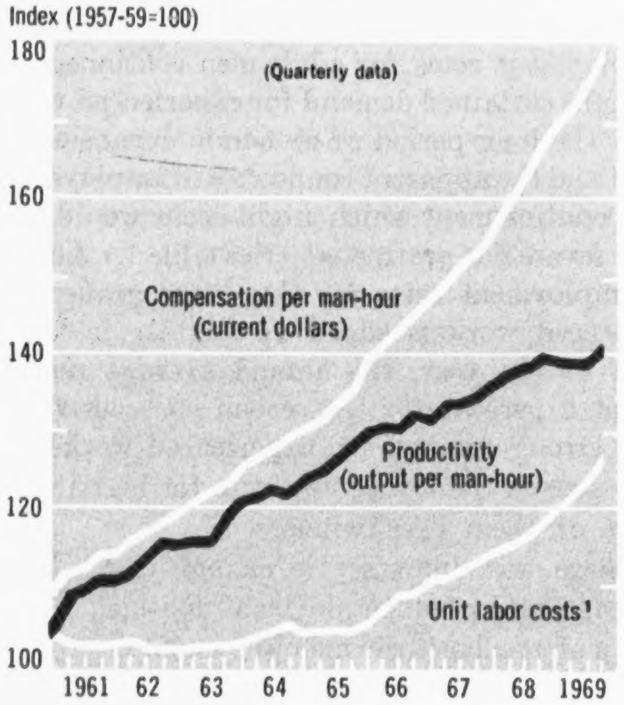
Unit labor costs—the compensation to labor for the unit of output produced in one man-hour—increased by nearly 6½ percent in the private economy last year, representing the largest hike in two decades. Part of the increase was due, of course, to the sharp rise in hourly compensation, which advanced at a rate of 6½ percent. But the increase in wages and fringe benefits, although larger than average for the post-World War II period, was somewhat lower than in 1968. The acceleration in unit labor costs in 1969 was more heavily influenced by the slowdown in productivity growth than by acceleration in hourly compensation (see chart 10).

The big wage increases of 1969 were, moreover, in large part a response to loss of purchasing power—actual and anticipated. Real compensation per man-hour, a measure which reflects changes in both prices and wages, increased by about 1 percent in the private economy. This indicates that American labor made very little advance in living standards last year, despite the fact that wages and salaries were increasing at very high rates.

These interrelationships indicate that productivity plays a critical role in the cost-price picture. Changes in unit labor costs reflect the interplay of productivity growth (as measured by output per man-hour) and changes in the average price of labor (as measured by compensation per man-hour). When productivity growth fails to keep up with wage increases, unit labor costs will rise, creating upward pressures on prices. Price increases also result from other market conditions, such as excess demand, which has been a major force in the economy in recent years.

CHART 10

Productivity growth has not kept up with wage gains since 1965—so unit labor costs have moved up sharply.



[1] Compensation of persons per hourly unit of output.

Note: Data relate to total private sector.

Source: Department of Labor.

Unemployment and Underemployment

While the average rate of unemployment was about the same in 1969 as in 1968, within each year the trends in unemployment were almost mirror opposites. Improvement during 1968 culminated in a 16-year low in unemployment in early 1969; during the fall of 1969, unemployment crept back up to late 1967 rates. The reversal was moderate, however, and at yearend, unemployment rates dropped again despite the slowdown in employment growth.

The developments did not suggest the classic picture of deterioration in the labor market characteristic of previous turning points in the business cycle. This probably could be attributed to the gradualness of the restraints on the economy and to the momentum of the expansionary forces generated during the more than 8 years of growth. Increased unemployment, at least in the fall of 1969, was evident mainly among new jobseekers and reentrants into the labor force, rather than among workers laid off from their jobs. Neither was there any evidence of a generalized worsening in the unemployment situation among Negro workers, although the unemployment rates for Negroes generally did show the same small increases as those for whites during the rise.

WHO ARE THE UNEMPLOYED

Unemployment developments for most major groups were similar to those in the labor force as a whole in 1969. Basically, previous differences in unemployment among various population groups were maintained rather than altered. Unemployment rates for adult men continued to reflect the sustained demand for experienced workers over the long period of economic expansion since 1961 and the apparent confidence of employers that any readjustment which might occur would be neither severe nor protracted. (See table 1.) Although unemployment rates for this large group of experienced workers edged up slightly in the last half of the year, the annual average remained about 2 percent for the second consecutive year. The strong demand for experienced workers was also seen in the low jobless rate for married men, most of them breadwinners.

There was, likewise, no change in the annual average rate of unemployment for men 20 to 24 years of age, but their unemployment began to rise somewhat more than other groups in the fall of 1969. The jobless rate for these young men, who have been entering the labor force in increasing numbers as a result of both a population bulge and longer schooling which has deferred entry into worklife past the teens, moved up (seasonally adjusted) to 6.5 percent in the fall of 1969, compared with an annual average of 5.1 percent in 1968 and 4.7 percent in 1967. So far (at the end of 1969), the effects of counterinflationary measures have resulted in slightly higher unemployment mainly among these and other entrants into the labor force. Job prospects for these young men will depend not only on the rate of job creation resulting from general economic growth, but also on their labor supply position as it may be affected by a contraction in the Armed Forces.

Recent veterans who have returned to the civilian labor force after service during the Vietnam period have, in fact, shown lower unemployment rates than nonveterans at the same ages. This might be expected since roughly one-third of the population in the age group vulnerable to military service is disqualified because of physical, educational, or mental deficiencies, and these disqualifications presumably affect the employment experience of nonveterans. Nonetheless, any large increase in the civilian supply of young workers

TABLE 1. COMPOSITION OF THE CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE AND UNEMPLOYMENT, 1961 AND 1969

[Numbers in thousands]

Color, sex, and age	1961					1969				
	Civilian labor force		Unemployed			Civilian labor force		Unemployed		
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Rate	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Rate
Total	70, 459	100. 0	4, 714	100. 0	6. 7	80, 733	100. 0	2, 831	100. 0	3. 5
White	62, 654	88. 9	3, 743	79. 4	6. 0	71, 779	88. 9	2, 261	79. 9	3. 1
Men, 20 years and over	39, 547	56. 1	2, 014	42. 7	5. 1	41, 772	51. 7	794	28. 0	1. 9
Women, 20 years and over	18, 747	26. 6	1, 060	22. 5	5. 7	23, 839	29. 5	806	28. 5	3. 4
Teenagers, 16 to 19 years	4, 361	6. 2	669	14. 2	15. 3	6, 168	7. 6	660	23. 3	10. 7
Negro and other races	7, 802	11. 1	970	20. 6	12. 4	8, 954	11. 1	570	20. 1	6. 4
Men, 20 years and over	4, 313	6. 1	504	10. 7	11. 7	4, 579	5. 7	168	5. 9	3. 7
Women, 20 years and over	2, 918	4. 1	308	6. 5	10. 6	3, 574	4. 4	209	7. 4	5. 8
Teenagers, 16 to 19 years	572	. 8	158	3. 4	27. 6	801	1. 0	193	6. 8	24. 0

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

resulting from rapid demobilization or a sharp reduction in military manpower requirements is likely to have an adverse effect on job prospects of both veterans and nonveterans.

The Changing Composition of Unemployment

Who is unemployed and how he becomes unemployed are questions with different answers under changing economic conditions. During periods of economic expansion, more of the unemployed are youngsters and women than during recessions, and more have become unemployed because they quit jobs or entered the labor force rather than because they were laid off from work. Judgments as to how serious unemployment may be for these different groups may seem easy, but they can also be deceptive. It is generally conceded that large-scale joblessness among family breadwinners has a priority claim on national concern and on economic policy. But this form of unemployment is not the only one with serious consequences.

The community in recent years has also learned that it also has a vital concern—calling for different responses—in the problems of individuals who cannot find, or cannot qualify for, jobs even in a period of generally expanding employment. It has a vital interest in the youth who may not be family breadwinners but who are barred from making a satisfactory start in their work careers or are handicapped in getting decent jobs because of their poor schooling. Moreover, most of these young men and women lack the compensations of unemployment insurance because they have not worked steadily enough or have worked at jobs not covered by such insurance. Even when such unemployment does not result in severe deprivation, damage may be done. Some of these youth, in fact, are increasingly aware that their future roles become fixed by a pattern of futureless, low-paid jobs and recurring joblessness that is difficult to break. Particularly among those who do not go on to college, do not learn a trade, and have received a poor education, despair over never sharing in general progress may have potentially serious effects for the community, as it does for the individuals.

Of the 2.8 million unemployed in 1969,[6] approximately one-half were teenagers and young adults (ages 16 to 24); in 1961, when unemployment was two-thirds higher, young persons accounted for only one-third of the total.

Job Losers, Leavers, and Entrants

New data on the prior status of the unemployed[7] show that about 36 percent of the unemployed in 1969 had lost their last job; about the same proportion had reentered the labor force to look for work; and the remaining 30 percent were evenly divided between those who had left their previous job voluntarily and those looking for their first job. Of those who had lost their last job, more than half were adult men.

Among men, whose jobless rates have been very low in recent years, job loss is the predominant reason for unemployment. Adult women, on the other hand, cite reentrance into the labor force as the most common background for current unemployment. Looking for the first job or coming back into the labor force are understandably the most common reasons for teenage unemployment. (See chart 11.)

Data of this kind on reasons for unemployment are not available prior to 1967. However, the proportion which the insured unemployed represent of all the unemployed gives some idea of the relative number of unemployed workers who are regular wage earners and how their proportion changes at different levels of economic activity. In 1961, insured unemployment represented 49 percent of total unemployment; in 1969, the proportion was 40 percent, even though the number of jobs covered by unemployment insurance has expanded by over 12 million (25 percent) since 1961. The insured unemployed comprise workers who hold jobs long enough, in industries covered by the insurance system, to acquire eligibility for compensation and who lose their jobs through no fault of their own.

Workers Seeking Part-Time Jobs

About 700,000 (or one-fourth) of the unemployed in 1969 were seeking only part-time work. These included 100,000 (about one-tenth) of the

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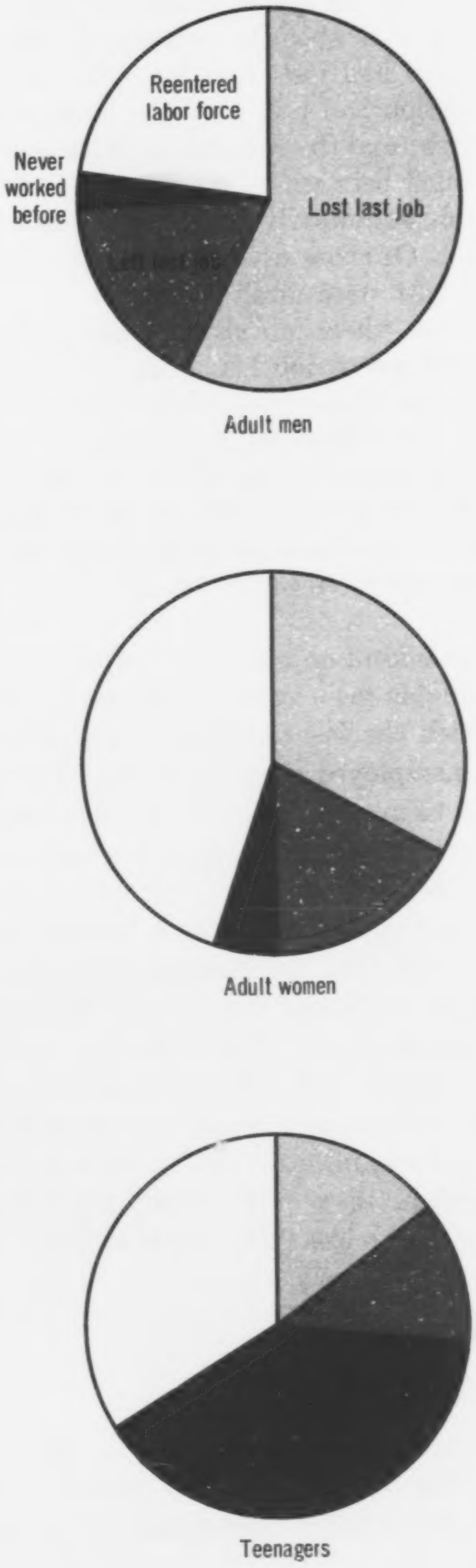
[6] Although 2.8 million persons were unemployed on average in any week in 1969, previous surveys indicate that 11 million different persons were unemployed over the course of the year.

[7] For a detailed discussion of reasons for unemployment and the data which show these, see Kathryn D. Hoyle, "Job Losers, Leavers and Entrants—A Report on the Unemployed," *Monthly Labor Review,* April 1969, pp. 24–29.

CHART 11

Reasons for unemployment, 1969



Source: Department of Labor.

unemployed men, 200,000 (one-fifth) of the unemployed women, and 400,000 (two-fifths) of the unemployed teenagers. Most of the teenagers and many of the adult men seeking part-time jobs were students. Most of the women seeking part-time employment were housewives wanting additional family income but having family responsibilities which prevented them from working full time.

Family Status, Occupation, and Industry

About one-fourth of the unemployed in 1969 were male heads of households, and 8 percent (about 215,000) were women household heads. In the early 1960's, male heads of households accounted for 30 to 40 percent of the unemployed; female heads of household comprised about the same proportion of the jobless persons as in 1969. Wives or other relatives of the household head accounted for the remainder.

Although white-collar workers now hold almost one-half (47 percent) of the Nation's jobs, they accounted for only one-third of the unemployed with some work experience. The unemployment rate for white-collar workers was only 2.1 percent in 1969, compared with 3.9 percent for blue-collar workers and 4.2 percent for service workers.

Construction workers continued to have the highest incidence of unemployment, relative to workers in other major industries, during 1969. Although the jobless rate for the industry was comparatively low in the first half of the year, it gradually rose as housing activity declined, and averaged 6.0 percent for the whole year.

The jobless rate for workers in manufacturing was also relatively low in early 1969, particularly for those in the durable goods sector. By the end of the year, however, unemployment among manufacturing workers returned to the somewhat higher level of the previous 2 years, as some firms began to scale down their production. For the whole year, the jobless rate for manufacturing workers averaged 3.3 percent. Unemployment among workers in trade (4.1 percent), finance and services (3.2 percent), and other industries did not fluctuate much during the year and was not significantly changed from 1968.

Duration of Unemployment

About three-fifths of the unemployed—about 1.6 million of a total of 2.8 million in 1969—were able to secure a job (or stopped looking for one) within 5 weeks. Only 1 in 8 was unemployed for at least 15 weeks. Unemployment lasting more than half a year, which has been declining as a proportion of total joblessness for several years, affected 1 out of 20 of the unemployed in 1969. (See table 2.)

OTHER EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS

Unemployment is not the only problem that may confront a worker. He may, for example, be confined involuntarily to a job where he can work only part time, or he may, indeed, have a full-time job and yet be earning only poverty-level wages.

In 1969, there were, on the average, about 1 million workers who wanted to work full time but were able to find only part-time work, as noted earlier. There were also about 1 million workers holding normally full-time jobs who actually worked less than 35 hours per week because of economic factors affecting their workweek (such as shortages of material or reduced orders).

The number of workers confined to part-time employment was particularly low during the first half of 1969. In the second half of the year, with unemployed men, 200,000 (one-fifth) of the unember of such workers increased slightly.

The anomaly of the more than 1 million male family heads who worked year round at full-time jobs, yet were unable to escape poverty, is examined in detail in the chapter on Employment and Poverty.

In addition to workers who are either unemployed, underemployed, or underpaid, there are those who want jobs but feel that any search for work would be in vain. Since these persons are not actively looking for work, they are counted as "not in the labor force," rather than as unemployed. These persons are distinct from those outside the labor force by choice or inability to work.

Until recently, there was little information on these workers, and their number and situation were the subject of speculation. Through special questions added to the Current Population Survey beginning in 1967, it has become possible to identify such persons on a regular basis. These workers were found to average about 700,000 in 1968. Preliminary data indicate about the same average for 1969, with the numbers fluctuating during both years with the level of unemployment. From the information developed under the criteria adopted for these surveys, it appears there is one "discouraged worker" for every four unemployed workers. The ratio, however, varies significantly for the various age-sex groups.

Most of those who cite discouragement as a reason for not looking for work are women (about

TABLE 2. DURATION OF UNEMPLOYMENT, 1961 AND 1968–69

[Numbers in thousands]

Weeks unemployed	1961		1968		1969	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total unemployed	4,714	100.0	2,817	100.0	2,831	100.0
Less than 5 weeks	1,806	38.3	1,594	56.6	1,629	57.5
5 to 14 weeks	1,375	29.2	811	28.8	827	29.2
15 weeks and over	1,532	32.5	412	14.6	375	13.2
15 to 26 weeks	728	15.4	256	9.1	242	8.5
27 weeks and over	804	17.1	156	5.5	133	4.7
Average weeks of unemployment	15.5		8.5		7.9	

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

70 percent). Comparatively few men in the central age groups are included in this discouraged worker category, as shown below:

		"Discouraged workers" [1] *(thousands)*			
	Total	*16 to 19 years*	*20 to 24 years*	*25 to 64 years*	*65 years and over*
Total	667	109	56	350	151
Men	213	42	10	73	87
Women	454	67	46	277	64

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[1] Persons not looking for work because they think they cannot find jobs. See Paul O. Flaim, "Persons Not in the Labor Force: Who They Are and Why They Don't Work," *Monthly Labor Review*, July 1969, pp. 3–14.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF UNEMPLOYMENT AND UNDEREMPLOYMENT

The burdens of unemployment and underemployment are distributed unevenly not only among the groups which make up the labor force but also among geographic areas within the Nation. The jobless rate, for example, is much higher in the West than in other areas of the country. It is also generally much higher for residents of central cities than for persons residing in suburban areas.

Until recently, little was known about the personal characteristics of the unemployed in local areas. Beginning in 1967, labor force and unemployment data by race became available for the various regions of the country, the 10 largest States, and the 20 largest metropolitan areas. It is now also possible to compare the employment situation of farm residents with nonfarm residents and of people in the poorest urban neighborhoods with those in other urban neighborhoods. Similar information on the personal characteristics of the insured unemployed is expected next year, when a new information retrieval system is established for all State and area offices affiliated with the U.S. Training and Employment Service.

An analysis of the regional data indicates that the West in general and the Pacific area in particular have substantially higher unemployment rates than other regions. This situation is probably attributable in large part to the in-migration of jobseekers from other regions of the country and to the initial delays they encounter in locating jobs.

Another finding of the recently available regional employment data is that a high proportion of Negro workers in the South are involuntarily limited to part-time work. Although unemployment among Southern Negroes does not exceed national averages, the percentage of Negro workers who had to settle for only part-time work was more than twice as high in the South as in the other three regions, as shown by the following figures for 1969:

	Percent unemployed	*Percent working part time for economic reasons*
Total	6. 4	5. 1
North	5. 5	2. 6
North Central	6. 8	2. 9
South	6. 4	7. 5
West	6. 8	3. 1

The principal reason why so many Negroes in the South are confined to part-time work is that they are still heavily concentrated in occupations such as household work or farm labor, where work is often not available on a full-time basis.

Labor force data for the Nation's 20 largest metropolitan areas confirm that unemployment is generally much higher for residents of the central cities than of the surrounding suburban areas. In 1969, the unemployment rate in the central cities of these 20 areas was 3.9 percent, while the rate for the surrounding suburbs was only 3.0 percent. The suburban areas are, of course, mainly white, while many central cities have a rapidly increasing proportion of Negro residents. Over one-third of the total Negro unemployment in the Nation was, in fact, located in these 20 cities in 1969. The contrast in unemployment rates is even sharper between some central cities and their suburban areas, and particularly sharp between the poor sections of these cities and outlying suburbs.

The metropolitan areas with generally higher-than-average unemployment rates in recent years have been Los Angeles and San Francisco in the West and Pittsburgh in the East. The jobless rates for the two West Coast areas (about 5 percent for each in 1968) do not reflect a lack of job growth as much as a large influx of jobseekers from other areas of the Nation. The high rate for Pittsburgh (about 4.5 percent) is, on the other hand, a reflection of both a very slow rate of employment growth in the area and an unusually high incidence of joblessness among Negro workers. Previous studies, based partially on data from the unemployment insurance system, have shown that some areas have maintained fairly low unemployment rates while experiencing slow employment and income growth. In these areas, the exodus of young people into areas of greater job opportunity provided some explanation for the comparatively low unemployment rates.

In a few metropolitan areas, unemployment has been exceptionally low in recent years. In Boston, Dallas, Minneapolis–St. Paul, and Washington, D.C., for example, the jobless rate averaged only around 2.5 percent in 1967 and 1968.

Other studies of unemployment recently conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that joblessness is very low (about 1.6 percent) among the farm population, but that underemployment is relatively high. For residents of the poorest urban neighborhoods, on the other hand, the jobless rate was about 5.5 to 6.0 percent in 1968 when the national rate was 3.6 percent.

Despite the keen concern over the effects of anti-inflationary measures on employment growth, there was no evidence by the end of 1969 that the small changes occurring in the Nation's overall employment situation were showing up in aggravated form in any of the economically vulnerable geographic areas. Relative stability—at generally high employment levels—characterized most of the country's major employment centers. The 150 major labor areas regularly classified by the U.S. Training and Employment Service and affiliated State employment security agencies according to their local unemployment situation and labor supply showed relatively few changes between December 1968 and December 1969, and such changes as occurred suggested an improvement in the overall situation, as indicated by the following developments:

Labor supply category [1]	*Number of areas* *December 1968*	 *December 1969*
Total	150	150
Overall labor shortage (less than 1.5 percent unemployment)	0	0
Low unemployment (1.5 to 2.9 percent)	51	59
Moderate unemployment (3.0 to 5.9 percent)	93	86
Substantial unemployment (6.0 percent or above)	6	5

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[1] Classification of major labor areas is based on the unemployment rate and employment and unemployment outlook, as well as other related labor market factors.

SEASONALITY

One important factor contributing to unemployment and underemployment is the seasonally fluctuating demand for labor. Of course, to some extent seasonality provides job opportunities for some persons who can work only at certain times of the year. Farming and construction have traditionally provided summer jobs for students; logging has provided winter employment for farmers. For the most part, however, seasonality in employment levies a tremendous cost on the Nation through losses in production and income and through hardships on individual workers. In the past, the attention given to seasonality was primarily for the purpose of identifying its pattern, in order that allowance could be made in economic measurements to distinguish between regular periodic changes and those which stem from substantially altered business conditions.

Only limited attention has been devoted to avoiding the periodic unemployment associated with seasonal business activity, and there have been only sporadic attempts to counter the inefficiencies of concentrating the demand for labor in specific intervals of the year. As the bargaining power of some workers grew, they won higher pay rates to offset the losses from intermittent unemployment, but many others affected by seasonal influences simply received smaller annual incomes. Seasonality in employment has also resulted in higher costs of production during the period of concentrated demand, drains on unemployment insurance and welfare funds during seasonal slack, and erosions of efficiency and morale in individuals as a result of job instability.

The primary source of seasonality lies in the dependence of some industries on the weather, but substantial seasonal variations in employment and business activity also result from buying traditions built around holiday seasons and customs in production and selling patterns which have developed in the course of time.

Farming, building, logging, and quarrying are operations directly dependent on the weather because most of the work activity takes place out of doors. Farming, in addition, has seasonal fluctuations related to the growth cycle of crops. Some individuals who work in agriculture during the peak employment season are not normally in the labor force during the remainder of the year.

Other producers are indirectly affected by the seasons because of market linkages with these industries. They may buy products from the outdoor industries or sell materials and equipment to them. The linkage is strongest where the product from an outdoor industry is perishable, such as farm goods sold to the food processing industry. Many of the industries affected directly or indirectly by weather exhibit dramatic seasonal swings in employment. The trough period, which may last from a few weeks to several months, may inflict serious unemployment on many workers.

In some industries, seasonal patterns stem from the concentration of sales during certain holiday periods, such as toys at Christmas and apparel at Easter. The changeover in automobile model production each year is an example of a counterseasonal pattern which was originally developed by the industry to combat the influence of weather on consumer buying habits and which subsequently became ingrained as an industry custom with its own seasonal concentrations. In recent years the auto industry has shifted its changeover periods slightly, either to extend the vigorous sales of one year's model or to boost flagging sales by the earlier introduction of new models. Furthermore, features introduced in collective bargaining agreements have affected the economics of seasonal concentration of activity in the automobile and, perhaps, in other industries. High overtime rates have presumably discouraged some concentrated activity, and requirements of minimum call-in pay have undoubtedly cut down on sporadic work schedules. While the effects of these provisions cannot be emasured precisely, they are generally held to have resulted in more even production schedules by requiring careful business planning. At least in the automobile industry, where custom rather than weather has been the predominant influence on seasonal activity, it has been demonstrated that change is possible in traditional seasonal patterns.

Most significant for its seasonal fluctuations in employment, and consequent underemployment, is the construction industry. Seasonal variations in construction employment not only reflect the industry's adjustment to the effects of weather but also represent the residue of practices common to the industry before modern methods were developed for coping with the weather. Reflected also is the lagging application of cold-weather construction techniques by many of the industry's smaller firms. Aggravating these seasonal problems is the problem of intermittency of employment, which reflects the changing location and limited duration of construction projects.

Employment in contract construction expands from winter to summer, on the average, by about three-quarters of a million workers. Many thousands of workers drawn into the labor force during the summer peak period are left without employment when operations are curtailed with the approach of winter. Although some workers are able to find employment in other industries and others withdraw from the labor force (some of them being students), many are faced with unemployment and loss of needed earnings.

Hardship on the Worker

A higher proportion of construction workers experience unemployment than workers in any other major nonagricultural industry group. In 1968, about one-fourth of the workers in construction experienced some unemployment, about double the proportion of workers in manufacturing and nonagricultural industries as a whole. Construction workers also are more likely than those in any other industry group, except agriculture, to experience repeated spells of unemployment.

As a result of seasonality and intermittency in their employment, the annual hours of work are low for construction workers. A special analysis of data obtained from private health, welfare, and pension funds covering workers in 13 construction occupations in Omaha, Milwaukee, Detroit, and southern California indicated that the majority of workers in all the individual construction occupations had fewer than 1,300 hours of work reported during the 12-month period covered by the data.[8] Thus, despite the relatively high hourly earnings received by wage and salary workers in construction, their average annual earnings are below those of workers in many of the high-wage manufacturing industries.

Cost to the Nation

Besides the waste of human resources during other seasons, each summer brings reports of labor shortages in particular occupations and geographic areas. The higher wages, overtime premiums, excessive equipment costs, and swollen overhead associated with the summer peak period ultimately are passed on to the consumer. Seasonality and intermittency have significant effects on wage rates. Wage settlements in recent years have widened differentials in hourly rates between construction and other industries. Among the arguments for such a large differential is the fact that construction workers experience higher rates of unemployment than other workers because of the seasonal nature of the work and so need higher hourly wages to provide reasonable annual earnings. Also, the geographic mobility required of construction workers presents an additional hardship to the industry's labor force. The wage differential, therefore, it is argued, is necessary to insure that a construction labor force will be available with the right skills at the right time and in the right place.

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[8] From "Seasonality and Manpower in Construction" (Washington: Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, in process).

Seasonal and intermittent employment in construction also contributes to a drain on the unemployment insurance system. Although construction employers generally are assessed unemployment insurance tax rates near or at the maximum under experience rating formulas, these taxes are inadequate to support the benefits paid to construction workers during periods of unemployment. The industry, in effect, benefits from a form of subsidy from other employers contributing to the unemployment insurance system.

The Persistence of Seasonality

Wages and prices in the construction industry have continued to rise in recent years. Furthermore, the pattern of seasonal employment in contract construction has not changed markedly since World War II. While the overall degree of seasonal variation has declined during the past 5 years, this decline appears to be a cyclical phenomenon similar to that of the early 1950's, also a period of low unemployment.

The essential stability in the range of seasonal variation is surprising in view of trends that ought to be working to reduce seasonality. These include a shift in the geographic distribution of employment toward the South Atlantic and Pacific States, areas where weather fluctuations are generally less severe than in other States; also a shift of employment toward special trades contractors (specializing in such work as plumbing, painting, or carpentry)—operations which are considerably less seasonal than those of general building and heavy construction contractors. Another significant change is the continued development of technological innovations that increase the ease of winter building, such as plastic shelters for closing in a job against unfavorable weather and improved space heaters.

The fact that seasonality in construction has shown little long-run alteration indicates that there are counterbalancing factors. One such factor may be an increasing seasonal pattern of contract awards. If contracts are awarded on a seasonal basis, all other aspects of work planning, organization, and commencement also tend to follow a seasonal movement.

Another counterbalancing factor is the increased amount of formal planning by contractors. While it would be logical to assume that contractors utilize planning to perform more winter work, contractors may in fact use formal planning to accomplish more work during spring, summer, and fall months, thereby heightening the seasonal employment peak. A special analysis by the Department of Labor of weather and construction activity in Chicago, for example, indicates that the industry's *expectation* of winter weather restraints has more influence on activity and employment than the *actual* weather conditions. The industry appears to plan on reduced activity in the winter months and apparently makes little provision for undertaking or continuing operations which, in fact, may turn out to be feasible.

Action

Because construction workers are among the most severely affected by seasonal instability, and because soaring prices have aroused concern for reducing construction costs, studies have been undertaken over the past few years to show the nature and extent of the problem and to explore the possibilities for action to reduce seasonal variations in employment. Reduction in this industry's seasonality could help to alleviate the problem of labor shortages and inflation and improve the industry's capabilities for meeting the Nation's housing needs.

More stable employment might moderate the sharp upward trend in hourly wages for construction workers and at the same time improve their annual incomes. Furthermore, since construction is sometimes regarded as a pace setter for wage settlements, a reduction in seasonality may have a stabilizing effect on wages and costs in other industries. Estimates from various sources indicate that, for most types of construction, the added costs of winter work are small and might even be offset by savings in other costs, such as unemployment compensation and overtime premiums.

Encouragement for action was provided by the Federal Government in 1968. The heads of Federal agencies were requested to modify their contracting procedures and take other steps to reduce seasonality, with the hope that progress in this direction will lead to similar action by State and local governments and by private industry. It is still too early to assess the impact of these efforts.

The Congress, in amending the Manpower Development and Training Act in 1968, also showed concern for the problem of seasonality in construction. Finding "that stabilization of construction operations may be expected to have a correspondingly stabilizing effect on construction employment and costs," the Congress directed the Departments of Labor and Commerce to examine, jointly, opportunities for lessening construction seasonality and to develop the measures required to do so. The recommendations of this joint study, submitted to the Congress and the President at the end of 1969, are summarized in the preceding chapter on Manpower and Economic Policy. The report is expected to give further impetus to the development of positive measures to reduce seasonality in construction.

Labor Force Growth and Problems

The growth of the labor force in 1969 gives strong evidence of the flexibility of the supply of workers in response to employment opportunities. During the first quarter of 1969, when total employment increased by 1.2 million, the civilian labor force expanded by almost as much, with only a small net decline in unemployment. Not since the beginning of 1953 had the labor force increased by as much in the short space of one quarter as the gain during the opening quarter of 1969.

In the second quarter, when employment held fairly steady, the supply of labor appeared to have caught up with demand and remained almost constant. Substantial increases in the labor force resumed in the second half of the year, though not at quite the same rapid rate as earlier in the year. By the final quarter, the accumulated quarterly increments had pushed the total labor force to the 85-million mark; the average for the year was 2.0 million greater than for the year before.

This 2.0-million expansion in the number of workers exceeded by more than one-half million the increase that would have been expected from growth in population of working age and continuation of past trends in labor force participation rates of the different age groups of men and women. Population growth alone would have accounted for about 1.3 million additional workers in 1969. Another 150,000 workers could have been expected, on balance, as a result of continued changes in labor force participation rates. These changes take account of long-run factors, such as the tendency for increasing proportions of wives to work, the trend toward earlier retirement of men, and postponed labor force entry of youth because of longer schooling.

The increases over the year for teenagers and adult men were about in line with long-term expectations. However, the number of women 20 years old and over in the labor force rose, not by the 650,000 expected, but by 1.1 million; and a substantial part of this greater-than-trend growth was contributed by younger adult women.

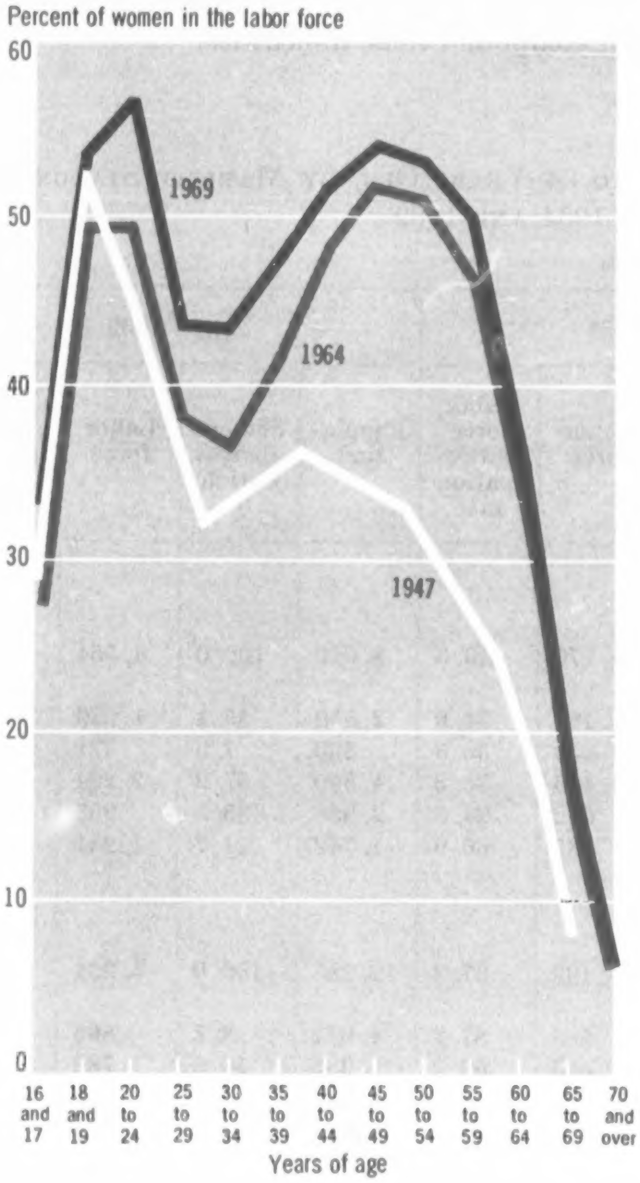
INCREASING PARTICIPATION OF YOUNG WOMEN

In the past several years, women 20 to 34 years old have been responding to the growing demand for workers by coming into the labor force in sharply increasing numbers. This represents a change from the earlier years of the post-World War II period when women 45 to 64 were most responsive to expanding job opportunities.

This changing age profile of women's labor force activity shows up dramatically in chart 12. In 1947, the highest rate of labor force participation was among 18- and 19-year-olds. The reasons for the extent of their labor force activity and the lower rates for other age groups seemed obvious. At 18 and 19, most of the women had completed their education, but a large percentage were not yet married; hence, they were available for work. At ages 20 through 34, however, most women were married, and the responsibilities of home and young children occupied their time. The proportion in the labor force therefore dropped sharply. Somewhat increased labor force activity marked the age groups 35 to 54, as children grew older and mothers reentered the labor force, but rates were much lower after age 54.

CHART 12

Labor force participation of young women has risen sharply in past 5 years—in contrast to previous dramatic rise in participation of mature women.



Source: Department of Labor.

In the years since 1947, not only has there been a general increase in labor force participation rates for women over 20 years of age (almost entirely among married women), but there has also been a shift in the age group showing the greatest increase. For many years, the most dramatic increase in labor force activity occurred among women over 45. Peak labor force activity by 1964 was no longer among young women aged 18 and 19, but had shifted to the women 45 to 54 years of age. The participation rate rose by 19 percentage points in 17 years for these women, so that by 1964 over 51 percent of women 45 to 54 were in the work force, compared with about 50 percent of the 18- and 19-year-olds.

Since 1964, increases in rates of labor force participation have not been quite as rapid for women aged 45 and over, while the group aged 20 to 24 has been expanding its work role very energetically. In a matter of 5 years, the rate for women 20 to 24 has not only overtaken but has surpassed that of older women and is now the highest for any age group. In 1969, about 57 percent of all women 20 to 24 years old were in the labor force, compared with less than 50 percent in 1964. As an indication of the magnitude of this shift, there would be 600,000 fewer 20- to 24-year-old women in the labor force in 1969 if the participation rate of this population group as a whole were no higher than it was 5 years ago.

A number of factors have contributed to this recent development. In the past few years there has been a small but perceptible decline in the proportion of women 20 to 24 years old who are married. This has occurred in part because of the larger number of young men in the Armed Forces since the Vietnam war started and in part because of the so-called "marriage squeeze." This "squeeze" is caused by the sharp increase in births right after World War II, which has recently resulted in an imbalance of more young women at prime marrying ages than young men about 2 years older, whom they tend to marry. These are temporary factors, but there may be some lasting influence making for slightly older marrying ages. In addition, the birth rate has fallen—probably because of increased use of "the pill"—so that a somewhat smaller proportion of women in these ages have young children to care for. (See table 3.) These changes have meant that greater proportions of young women have stayed in the labor force, since labor force participation rates are highest for single women and lowest for mothers of preschool-age children.

These recent developments may be temporary, and the age of peak participation may shift again in a few years. Altogether, however, the changing responses of women to expanding job opportunities have had a common thrust. *The most significant and durable impact of these developments has been the tendency for married women at all ages below 65, regardless of the presence of children, to increase their participation in the labor force.* In fact, two-thirds of all civilian workers added during the post-World War II period were women. Even though the labor force participation of women is now likely to increase at a slower pace than in recent years, their role in work outside the home is expected to expand further, influenced by technological, social, and psychological changes which have cut the time required for homemaking duties, expanded job opportunities, encouraged education and training for women, raised their aspirations for material things, made them contributors to their families' financial ability to acquire goods and services, and put the stamp of social approval on their working for pay outside the home.

LABOR FORCE PROBLEMS OF YOUTH

Young people encounter difficulties in the job market by the very fact of being young and lacking work experience. Inadequate education and training, lack of guidance about opportunities for training and jobs, and discrimination because of color compound these difficulties.

TABLE 3. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN 20 TO 34 YEARS OLD, BY MARITAL STATUS AND AGE OF CHILDREN, MARCH 1964 AND 1969

[Numbers in thousands]

Age and marital status	March 1964				March 1969			
	Population	Percent distribution	Labor force	Labor force participation rate	Population	Percent distribution	Labor force	Labor force participation rate
20 TO 24 YEARS								
Total	6, 446	100. 0	3, 176	49. 3	8, 040	100. 0	4, 554	56. 6
Single	2, 002	31. 1	1, 481	74. 0	2, 850	35. 4	1, 979	69. 4
Widowed, divorced, or separated	497	7. 7	250	50. 3	590	7. 3	371	62. 9
Married, husband present	3, 947	61. 2	1, 445	36. 6	4, 600	57. 2	2, 204	47. 9
With children under 6	2, 800	43. 4	680	24. 3	2, 858	35. 5	953	33. 3
No children under 6	1, 147	17. 8	765	66. 9	1, 742	21. 7	1, 251	71. 8
25 TO 34 YEARS								
Total	11, 271	100. 0	4, 199	37. 3	12, 285	100. 0	5, 334	43. 4
Single	786	7. 0	685	87. 2	1, 071	8. 7	866	80. 9
Widowed, divorced, or separated	1, 033	9. 2	623	60. 3	1, 232	10. 0	782	63. 5
Married, husband present	9, 452	83. 9	2, 891	30. 6	9, 982	81. 3	3, 686	36. 9
With children under 6	6, 751	59. 9	1, 481	21. 9	6, 624	53. 9	1, 805	27. 2
No children under 6	2, 701	24. 0	1, 410	52. 2	3, 358	27. 3	1, 881	56. 0

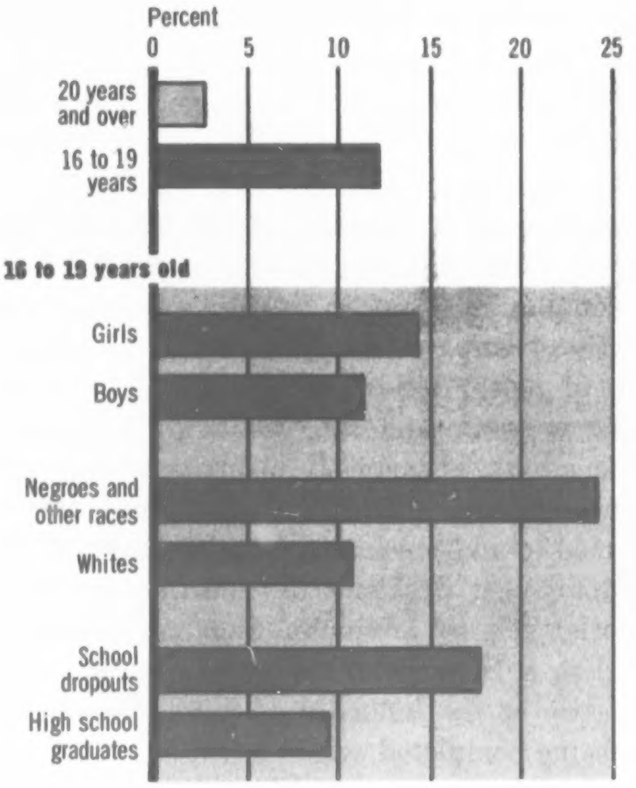
NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

On the whole, differences in unemployment rates among teenagers suggest that the problem centers on the youngest, the Negroes, the least educated, and the girls (see chart 13). The important point is that the Nation does not have a general "youth unemployment problem" so much as a problem involving particular groups among the youth. Even more important, for many in these groups, labor force problems do not end with the passing of youth but tend to continue throughout working life.

To these problems there has been added in recent years the tremendously increased competition for available jobs resulting from sheer increase in the number of young persons. The population of 16- to 19-year-olds increased by 3.6 million, to over 14.5 million, between 1961 and 1969. Trends in the teenage civilian labor force closely paralleled those in the population. Over the past 8 years, the teenage labor force increased by 2.0 million, even though the proportion of teenagers still in school rose. Despite unprecedented general prosperity and a decline in the number of teenage school dropouts in the labor force, the problem of high teenage unemployment has abated very little.

CHART 13

Unemployment rates are high for teenagers -- particularly girls, Negroes, and the least educated.



Note: Data relate to 1969 averages except for dropouts and graduates which relate to October 1968.

Source: Department of Labor.

High unemployment rates for teenagers mirror to some extent the social expectations and cultural and economic patterns of the country. For example, there is little of the job stability that comes in some other countries from heavy reliance on apprenticeship. Longer years of schooling than in the past lead to more moves into and out of the labor force and also to searches for specific terms of employment. And a generally longer period of parental support reduces the economic compulsion to find work and encourages experimentation with various jobs before settling on career employment. Nonetheless, other aspects of current unemployment among youth are a source of serious concern.

For one thing, the high unemployment rates for youth have persisted despite a tight labor market, so that the gap between the teenage and the adult rates has widened in recent years, indicating that improvement for the young has not kept pace with that for adult workers. For another, unemployment has tended to be concentrated among impoverished Negro and other disadvantaged youth, for whom both the immediate and the long-range economic and social impacts are most invidious.

The uneven pace of change in the youth population and labor force has exacerbated the problem of unemployment for young people. The low birth rates of the depression years, followed by the unusually high rates of the 1940's and 1950's, have resulted in severe pressures upon the economy to absorb larger numbers of new young workers—during a period when other stresses arising from major industrial and occupational shifts were also being felt. Moreover, even if only a minimal period of unemployment could be expected from entry or reentry into the labor force, the amount of unemployment would be appreciable because of the size and rapidity of the increases in the teenage population.

Further, the composition of the teenage labor force itself has undergone considerable change, with consequent effects on youth unemployment. As the proportion of young people who continue their schooling has risen, so has the proportion of students in the labor force—not only because of the larger numbers of students but also because of their increasing tendency to work. This shift has resulted in more movement of teenagers in and out of the labor force than formerly, since large numbers of youth are seeking short-term and part-time work which will fit in with their school schedules.

Competition with other groups for available jobs further complicates the employment situation for young people. Many of the married women entering the labor force in large numbers look for part-time or short-term work, as do students. There are also unemployment consequences resulting from competition within the teenage group between students, school dropouts, and high school graduates.

In addition to the adverse effects of the long-run changes in the size of the teenage labor force, pressures on the labor market also result from the very short-run annual expansion and contraction with the beginning and end of the school vacation. For example, between May and June 1969, the teenage labor force increased by 2.3 million, and within the next 30 days, by another 700,000. So large a number of entrants and reentrants in a relatively brief period—over 3 million in 60 days—inevitably brings an increase in unemployment, as is indicated by the changes in the labor force, employment, and unemployment of teenagers for May through September 1969:

1969	*Number (thousands)*				*Teenage unemployment rate (percent)*
	Teenage civilian labor force	*Change from preceding month*	*Teenagers employed*	*Change from preceding month*	
May	6, 168	−67	5, 545	−16	10. 1
June	8, 495	2, 327	7, 058	1, 513	16. 9
July	9, 222	727	7, 972	914	13. 7
August	8, 625	−597	7, 761	−211	10. 0
September	6, 653	−1, 972	5, 811	−1, 950	12. 7

Another factor in teenage unemployment is the high rate of voluntary job leaving. During 1969, for example, 12 percent of unemployed teenagers said they were looking for work because they had quit their last jobs.

Reduction or lack of growth in low-skilled jobs is frequently cited as contributing to high unemployment rates for young people. The number of jobs in each of the lowest skilled occupation groups—farm laborers, nonfarm laborers, and private household workers—decreased or showed little growth between 1961 and 1969, while the number of teenagers employed in these occupations increased by two-thirds in the nonfarm laborers group and decreased only in the farm laborers group. In the five occupation groups which account for 3 out of 5 employed teenagers—nonfarm laborers, farm laborers, private household workers, operatives, and service workers (except private household)—employment of teenagers over the last 8 years increased by more than 60 percent of their labor force increase. Moreover, in clerical and sales occupations—the other two groups in which large numbers of teenagers work—their increase was over 40 percent, compared with about 28 percent for all workers. Thus, while many of the kinds of jobs in which young people find employment have shown little or no growth overall, the number of teenagers employed in such jobs (except in farm occupations) has increased appreciably.

The minimum wage as a factor in youth unemployment has been the subject of a great deal of debate and study. Up to now, the evidence has not been conclusive as to the extent to which minimum wage provisions have affected employment of young people. The question may become more important in the event that coverage of the Federal minimum wage law is broadened, or the hourly minimum wage raised, by future legislation.

One important objective of the Department of Labor's research program is the clarification of the complex relationship between minimum wages and the unemployment of youth. A longitudinal study of youth,[9] following them in their path from school to work and into their work careers as young adults, is currently in process under sponsorship by the Department; when completed, it is expected to add much to the understanding of the unemployment problems of youth, including the potential role of minimum wage regulations. In addition, a Department of Labor study directed primarily at the influence of minimum wages is now being completed and is scheduled for release in the near future.

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[9] "Longitudinal Study of Labor Force Behavior," by Herbert S. Parnes, Center for Human Resource Research, Ohio State University, and the Demographic Surveys Division, Bureau of the Census, under contract with the Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, in process.

2

MILITARY MANPOWER AND THE CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE

Military manpower requirements directly affect the numbers of youth who are available for civilian employment, and directly and indirectly affect their competitive position in seeking jobs. The prospect of reductions in the Armed Forces has therefore intensified interest in the potential impact of this development on unemployment.

The reduction appears to have begun already; by the end of 1969, the strength of the Armed Forces declined by more than 200,000 from the high point reached during 1968. This was the first sizable contraction since the Vietnam military buildup began.

The level of the Armed Forces has been about 3½ million for the past 3 years. To maintain that strength, about 900,000 young men have enlisted or have been inducted each year to offset an approximately equal number of separations. The contraction in 1969 stems from a slightly greater number of separations than entries.

Since the men leaving the Armed Forces are about 23 years old, they are less likely to encounter the same employment difficulties as younger men. However, the reduction in the number of young men entering the Armed Forces, most of whom are under 21, means that more young men remain in the civilian population and are subject to the higher incidence of unemployment encountered by men in this group. If the size of the Armed Forces is reduced substantially, it is likely that unemployment will increase unless there is a corresponding expansion in jobs available for these young people.

Other developments in the military manpower situation will also affect the employment situation of young men. In late 1969 the Congress amended the Military Selective Service Act of 1967, permitting the President to modify callup procedures. The modifications ordered by the President are expected to affect job prospects of youth differently at various ages. These changes will:

1. **Shift from an oldest first order of call to a system of random selection. After the conversion year 1970 (during which registrants ages 19 through 25 will be eligible), the selections will be made by the local boards from a group made up of: (1) 19 year olds who are classified as available; and (2) registrants of ages 19 through 25 who have been reclassified from a deferred to an available status.**
2. **Reduce the period of greatest draft vulnerability from 7 years to 1 year. Under the new procedures a registrant who is not deferred enters the selection group for the calendar year immediately following the year in which he attains his 19th birthday. A registrant not deferred and whose random sequence number is not reached in the induction process in his local board during his year of prime vulnerability will have a decreasing vulnerability in subsequent years. He, however, will remain liable until his 26th birthday.**

These modifications will reduce the period of uncertainty about the draft for both employees and employers. Because many young men did not know whether they would be drafted until after they had been in the labor force for several years, their job opportunities and prospects for promotion tended to be limited, and their own career planning was apt to be hedged with uncertainty. Employers, on the other hand, were often reluctant to hire or promote men whom they might soon lose. Under the new draft regulations, however, the period of maximum draft vulnerability will be concentrated in a single year—for most men the year after they reach 19.

Up to now, the problem of uncertainty has not been as great as it might have been, because so many young men entered the Armed Forces during the Vietnam buildup that either their military service requirements had been met or their draft status clarified by the time they reached their twenties. In the years ahead, however, military manpower requirements are expected to decline. If the previous system had continued, large numbers would be well over 20 before they could be sure that they were not likely to be drafted.

Under the new draft reforms, selection by lottery should enable each person to know, in his 19th year of age, what his chances are for being inducted during his year of maximum vulnerability. For those whose chances of induction are low, uncertainty about the likelihood of callup is sharply reduced after their 19th birthday. For those whose chances of induction are high, the period of uncertainty ends with actual induction or the end of the selection year if they are not inducted or deferred.

The use of a random selection system also permits the identification of draft vulnerability for those who go on to college. Young men are permitted to complete their undergraduate training before they must serve, but as a result of their position determined by lottery, they will know during their 19th year what their chances for induction will be after graduation. This will enable men planning to attend college to schedule their job plans more rationally.

Because men under 19 will still be permitted to enlist and choose their branch of service and duty, both enlistments and inductions will be bunched among 18- and 19-year-olds. College students will become liable for induction after completing their undergraduate degrees, as at present. Opportunities for rehabilitating men who are rejected for service will be limited to volunteers and those men who are called up for examination. However, an increase is expected in the number of preinduction examinations in 1970 and 1971.

Although the effects of draft uncertainty will be significantly reduced for most men, the new system may intensify the employment problems for others. Men who learn when they reach 19 that they are highly vulnerable may have difficulty in finding employment, since employers will know that they will be called up within a year at most and possibly within the next month or two. It is likely that many of the men scheduled for callup during the year will be "in the pipeline" as civilians for some months. A few may experience some be significantly reduced for most men, the new

The Outlook

As 1970 opened, the country found itself on new and largely unfamiliar ground. It had continued an economic expansion for a ninth successive year. Over this period, large numbers of Americans had benefited from widespread gains. More of them had steadier and better paying jobs than ever before.

But not everyone had shared in the general progress; and alongside the successes, the lack of a decent living among people in urban ghettos and rural slums was all the more conspicuous. At this point—still far short of erasing poverty and other serious economic problems, but continuing an expansion which demonstrated that these problems could ultimately be solved—the insidious warping pressures of inflation posed a serious threat to the stability and equity of further progress. This threat dictated temporary restraints on the pace of economic growth—a growth which had thus far provided the essential environment for overcoming the country's major employment and economic problems.

Because the efforts to restrain inflation were intended not to halt economic growth but to make it more sustainable, these efforts had to be moderate. Thus, even while growth appeared to be slackening in 1969, inflationary pressures continued, and the economic behavior of consumers, businessmen, and workers appeared to be based as much on expectation of continued growth as on fear of a sharp and painful contraction.

Although so long and strong a period of expansion as the 1960's provided was a new experience for the Nation, its achievements yielded confidence that tools could be developed to contain and abort any recession that might ensue from the policies of restraint. The Nation had already learned that monetary and fiscal actions could stimulate—as well as restrain—growth, that income maintenance programs could buffer declines in the economy and ease the hardship of individuals, that flexible and responsive manpower programs could upgrade the productivity of labor and overcome difficulties of workers in the labor market, and that provision of information and assistance could help match workers with jobs and reduce much of the waste of unemployment and underutilization.

In addition to the expanded role of government in the economy and the more flexible instruments at its disposal for stimulating or restraining economic growth, both government and private individuals now have faster access to more extensive information on current economic developments. The responses that are developed to changing economic conditions can be made, to a far greater degree than heretofore, on the basis of knowledge. Uncertainty is still possible, but ignorance of major changes in the economy, such as characterized the 1920's and 1930's, is far less likely.

Moreover, even should the policies of restraint result in more of an economic slowdown than intended, it seems likely that any rise in unemployment would not be as sharp as the decline in business activity. For one thing, a much larger proportion of total employment is now in white-collar and service occupations, which are not subject to layoffs to the same extent as blue-collar jobs when business activity declines. Even in occupations outside the white-collar field, a wide variety of institutional developments have worked to increase job stability. Moreover, a cushion against layoffs of workers exists in the high levels of overtime work which still prevail in many industries. Elimination of overtime should at least defer any sharp increase in unemployment in industries that may have to adjust production to lower levels of consumer demand.

However, there will be other factors adding to the uncertainties of the employment situation in 1970. Reductions in the strength of the Armed Forces and in defense production are already underway. In combination with recently announced cutbacks in civilian jobs at military bases, these reductions will be increasing the labor supply at the same time that employment growth has slowed down. The impact of these actions will be especially severe in areas dependent on defense production or military bases as a major source of employment. Recovery will obviously depend on the resiliency of the economy in shifting to civilian production and on the effectiveness of manpower programs in training and placing veterans and in helping youth to find jobs. An important ingredient in the success of such programs will be the resumption of sustainable economic and job growth. And the achievement of such growth will depend, in turn, on Federal economic policies, including the use of the "peace dividend" funds released from defense requirements.

One critical factor affecting the success of anti-inflationary policies in 1970—and consequent prospects for renewed employment expansion—will be productivity. The resumption of strong productivity growth will be important in providing greater output to moderate inflationary pressures and to make possible real gains in workers' incomes. Although lags in adjusting staffing requirements to production schedules may have been one element in the severely interrupted productivity growth in 1969, other forces influencing long-term trends were still unmistakably present. The sustained expansion of expenditures for new plant and equipment must ultimately be reflected in increasing productivity of goods and services. With each new piece of capital equipment put in place, the potential for greater efficiency is further enhanced, since new machinery usually incorporates a more advanced level of technology. However, when capital investment is very high, as it has been in recent years, and occurs in tight labor and capital markets, it may intensify inflationary pressures for a while.

However, while productivity growth can be stimulated in the next few years by the increase in capital investment, as well as by increasing education and the upgrading of worker skills, working against such a speedup is the growth in employment in the service-producing sector of the economy. Aside from such heavily mechanized areas as electric utilities, telephone communications, and airline transportation, the service-producing sector generally has low productivity compared with goods production. Because employment in these low-productivity areas has grown faster than average, it has had a dampening effect on average productivity growth. However, there are relatively few opportunities for applying new technology in many service activities since these activities employ very little capital. In addition, there have been indications that the quality of labor in the service industries has grown less rapidly than in goods-producing sectors. Because there are a host of forces at work in our dynamic economy which both stimulate and retard overall productivity, it is difficult to predict to what degree productivity growth will be affected.

Among the many influences which will affect the economy during the critical period in 1970 while it regroups for further growth will be the collective bargaining actions of major unions and employers. Major agreements covering about 5 million workers are subject to renegotiation in 1970. This is an increase of two-thirds over the number of workers involved in contract expirations in 1969. The results of these major collective bargaining negotiations—in railroad, trucking, automobile, and construction industries—will be reflected in both the level of labor-management strife and the pattern of economic growth in the coming year. Wage increases in the past few years have been based largely on spiraling inflationary economic conditions and on a relatively tight labor market. The success of efforts to control inflation, and the need for continued restraint on economic growth, will be strongly influenced by the results of wage decisions. Unfortunately, the results of inflation prior to 1970 will themselves have an impact on the size of wage increases in both union and nonunion establishments.

In 1970, much will depend on the orderly accommodation by consumers, businessmen, and workers to prospects of a slower and more stable growth and on the flexibility of Government policies in shifting from economic restraint to support of renewed growth. The development of adequate manpower programs, both for buffering effects on workers during the period of restraint and for utilizing the labor force more efficiently, should be important in easing the transition.

3

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN MANPOWER PROGRAMS

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN MANPOWER PROGRAMS

In the words of the President:

> **Manpower training means: (1) Making it possible for those who are unemployed or on the fringes of the labor force to become permanent, full-time workers; (2) giving those who are now employed at low income the training and the opportunity they need to become more productive and more successful; (3) discovering the potential in those people who are now considered unemployable, removing many of the barriers now blocking their way.[1]**

Shortly after taking office in January 1969, the Administration undertook a review of the many existing manpower programs to find out how well they were meeting these objectives. As this review indicated, the programs authorized by the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and subsequent legislation have made—and are making—very large contributions to the productive employment of previously jobless and underemployed youth and adults. They have helped to overcome barriers to employment for great numbers of disadvantaged workers, thus adding to the country's economic strength as well as individual well-being. But the proliferation of categorical programs—aimed at serving sometimes different, sometimes overlapping disadvantaged groups, and involving many public and private agencies—has entailed serious waste, delay, and inefficiency.

Two broad directions of action were decided upon—first, an all-out effort to strengthen and improve the present programs and, second, the development of a coherent, permanent system for planning, administering, and delivering manpower services.

Improvements in program administration and coordination were the first essential and were initiated early in 1969. Of the many steps taken in this direction, one of the most significant was the reorganization of the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration, including the establishment of new and stronger regional offices. Major responsibility for the planning and operation of all manpower programs administered by the Department has been delegated to these offices—beginning a decentralization of authority and responsibility which would be carried much further by the new Manpower Training Act recommended by the Administration (and discussed in the concluding section of this chapter). Evidence has accumulated that the diverse needs and handicaps of many different disadvantaged groups cannot be met effectively through programs administered from Washington, D.C. The States and localities where manpower problems exist can best plan how these problems should be met and operate the programs to accomplish this.

Decategorization of programs is also needed to eliminate troublesome rigidities and variations in eligibility requirements and regulations and to facilitate tailoring of services to individuals and communities. But substantial progress in this direction waits upon new legislation.

As a background for reviewing the major program developments of 1969, this chapter first presents a brief statistical overview of past and projected enrollment trends in federally assisted manpower programs and of the characteristics of their enrollees—most of them greatly disadvantaged. The important developments then discussed include the enlargement of private industry's role in training and employing the disadvantaged; the strengthening of vocational education under recent amendments to the Vocational Education Act; significant changes in programs for youth—the redesign of the Neighborhood Youth Corps and restructuring of the Job Corps; and the establishment of a broad new Public Service Careers Program. The rapid buildup of the Work Incentive Program for welfare clients—which has become a prototype for the manpower aspects of the proposed new Family Assistance Program[2]—is another development outlined. Also discussed are the employment services and educational benefits available to returning servicemen and the further steps needed to insure that ex-servicemen who are members of minority groups or have special handicaps find satisfactory civilian employment.

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[1] Message of the President to the Congress, Aug. 12, 1969.

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The chapter concludes with an analysis of the progress made in planning, administering, and delivering manpower services and of the proposed Manpower Training Act. Better coordination and rationalization of manpower programs have been achieved during 1969. But a real solution to the problem of overlapping and duplicated program effort existing alongside unmet need hinges upon a comprehensive new approach to manpower programs which the Manpower Training Act would make possible.

A guide to present manpower programs—including such key facts as the legislative authorization, the administering agency, and the services provided—is presented in appendix A.

Federally Assisted Manpower Programs

The number of unemployed and underemployed people aided by Government manpower programs has increased very rapidly—more than sixfold—in the past 5 years. Enrollments in federally assisted work and training programs rose from 278,000 in fiscal 1964 to nearly 1.8 million in fiscal 1969. (See table 1.) Assuming that the Congress accepts the Administration's budget request, enrollments will be even higher (close to 2 million) during the current fiscal year.

RECENT ENROLLMENT TRENDS

This great increase in enrollments was made possible by a similarly rapid rise in Federal expenditures for manpower programs—from $403 million to $2.2 billion between fiscal years 1964 and 1969.[3] The expenditures data include the public employment service which is not included in the enrollment figures since its operations cannot be reported in these terms.

The continuing growth in manpower services to disadvantaged people is shown more clearly by end-of-month data for programs administered by the Department of Labor, though the enrollment levels indicated are naturally below the more comprehensive annual totals just cited. On the last day of April 1969, 434,000 youth and adults were enrolled in these work and training programs, some 80,000 more than the preceding April. At the end of July 1969, enrollments totaled 678,000, about 145,000 above the July 1968 figure. (See table 2.)

The Neighborhood Youth Corps' large summer program was responsible for the exceptionally high enrollment totals in summer months. The programs in which there has been a steady buildup are, however, the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP), which focuses manpower services in specific poverty areas; the new Work Incentive Program for welfare clients; and the JOBS (Job Opportunities in the Business Sector) Program, in which private industry employs and trains the hard-core unemployed with Government financial aid. Enrollments have leveled off or decreased in some older programs—institutional and OJT training under the Manpower Development and Training Act, the NYC (except for the summer

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[2] For a discussion of this plan, provided for by the proposed Family Assistance Act recommended by the Administration, see the chapter on Income Maintenance and Work Incentives.

[3] The programs included in these figures are those classified as manpower programs by the Bureau of the Budget. These programs directly influence the supply, quality, or demand for manpower by means of skill training, direct employment, or job placement assistance. In general, they are for persons already in the work force or desiring to be in the work force but unprepared; are delivered outside the normal educational process; provide services for less than 1 year; and are targeted to the disadvantaged sector of the population. Budget requests for fiscal 1970 totaled $2.9 billion.

TABLE 1. FIRST-TIME ENROLLMENTS[1] IN FEDERALLY ASSISTED WORK AND TRAINING PROGRAMS, FISCAL YEARS 1964, 1968–71

[Thousands]

Program	Fiscal years				
	1964	1968[2]	1969	1970 (estimated)	1971 (projected)
Total	278	1, 514	1, 761	1, 953	2, 126
Manpower Development and Training Act					
Institutional training	69	140	135	148	152
On-the-job training	9	101	85	81	30
Neighborhood Youth Corps	---------	467	504	482	486
Concentrated Employment Program	---------	54	127	152	155
Job Opportunities in the Business Sector[3]	---------	6	51	75	173
Work Incentive Program	---------	---------	81	133	180
Job Corps	---------	65	53	47	49
Vocational Rehabilitation	179	330	368	432	452
Other programs[4]	21	351	357	403	449

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[1] Estimated number of new enrollees during the fiscal year, generally larger than the number of training or work opportunities programed because turnover or short-term training results in more than one individual using an enrolment opportunity. Persons served by more than one program are counted only once.

[2] Minor differences between certain of these figures and comparable data in appendix table F-1 result from similar small differences in definition.

[3] Includes only those enrollees in the JOBS Program who were hired by employers under contracts with the Department of Labor.

[4] Includes a wide variety of programs, some quite small; e.g., Operation Mainstream, New Careers, Foster Grandparents, the Veterans Administration's on-the-job training and vocational rehabilitation programs, and the Transition Program and Project 100,000 of the Department of Defense. Data for some of these programs are estimated.

SOURCE: Bureau of the Budget, "Special Analysis of Federal Manpower Programs."

TABLE 2. ENROLLMENTS IN MANPOWER PROGRAMS AT END OF MONTH FOR SELECTED MONTHS, 1968–70

[Thousands]

Program	1968			1969				1970
	April	July	October	January	April	July	October	January[1]
Total[2]	355. 3	534. 6	306. 1	380. 7	433. 6	678. 4	409. 2	426. 6
Manpower Development and Training Act								
Institutional training	60. 4	54. 0	48. 7	54. 5	56. 7	45. 8	38. 6	45. 8
On-the-job training	38. 9	40. 0	43. 3	37. 1	36. 9	38. 3	38. 4	39. 6
Neighborhood Youth Corps								
In school and summer	131. 9	330. 9	95. 5	99. 9	101. 6	356. 4	96. 1	103. 9
Out of school	57. 6	43. 6	43. 5	45. 7	47. 5	37. 1	31. 3	32. 1
Operation Mainstream	9. 0	10. 1	10. 0	8. 1	10. 2	10. 9	12. 8	12. 3
New Careers	3. 8	3. 5	3. 2	3. 3	3. 4	3. 4	3. 7	3. 8
Concentrated Employment Program	19. 8	18. 7	20. 6	50. 8	70. 5	76. 7	68. 6	54. 9
Job Opportunities in the Business Sector[3]	--------	--------	--------	14. 0	20. 4	27. 9	33. 7	37. 0
Work Incentive Program	--------	--------	6. 2	33. 8	56. 2	62. 7	67. 0	77. 7
Job Corps	32. 5	32. 2	33. 1	32. 9	29. 8	18. 4	18. 9	19. 5

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[1] Preliminary.

[2] Includes only programs administered by the Department of Labor. Persons enrolled in Special Impact programs, not shown separately, are included in the totals.

[3] Includes only those enrollees in the JOBS Program who were hired by employers under contracts with the Department of Labor.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

program), and the Job Corps. Though MDTA resources have increased, they have been used, along with those under the Economic Opportunity Act, to finance the CEP and the JOBS Program, as efforts have been focused increasingly on providing the broadest possible range of manpower training and supportive services. The sharp reduction in Job Corps enrollments during 1969 reflects the Administration's decision to restructure the program and the consequent closing of a number of the less effective residential training centers for poor youth. However, new centers of a different kind are to be opened; so there will be some renewed expansion in the Corps.

In the largely rural and small-town work-experience program for chronically unemployed adults known as Operation Mainstream, enrollments have totaled about 12,000–13,000 since August 1969. Finally, the New Careers program, which provides jobs with career-ladder possibilities in human service activities, has remained the smallest of the programs administered by the Department of Labor, with 3,000 to 4,000 disadvantaged workers enrolled each month.

CHARACTERISTICS OF ENROLLEES

Most enrollees in manpower programs are "disadvantaged," meaning that they are poor and have one or more serious handicaps in finding and keeping satisfactory jobs—for example, lacking a high school education or being a member of a minority group.[4]

The proportion of Negroes is far higher among the enrollees in every program than in the work force generally (11 percent) or even among all unemployed workers (21 percent in 1969). In the JOBS Program, nearly 4 out of every 5 enrollees in fiscal 1969 were Negroes; in the Concentrated Employment Program, 2 out of every 3; in the Job Corps, more than half. (See table 3.)

The proportion of enrollees who lack a high school education is also extremely high. In all programs, at least half of the enrollees had failed to

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[4] For manpower program purposes, a disadvantaged person "is a poor person who does not have suitable employment and who is either (1) a school dropout, (2) a member of a minority, (3) under 22 years of age, (4) 45 years of age or over, or (5) handicapped." Members of families receiving cash welfare payments are deemed "poor" for purposes of this definition. For a further discussion of the poverty standard, see the chapter on Employment and Poverty.

TABLE 3. CHARACTERISTICS OF ENROLLEES IN FEDERALLY ASSISTED WORK AND TRAINING PROGRAMS, FISCAL YEAR 1969

Program	Percent of all enrollees						
	Women	Negro[1]	Age		Years of school completed		On public assistance[2]
			Under 22 years	45 years and over	8 or less	9 to 11	
Manpower Development and Training Act							
Institutional training	44	40	38	10	19	39	13
On-the-job training	35	35	36	10	17	35	5
Neighborhood Youth Corps							
In school	47	47	100	--------	20	79	30
Out of school	54	48	97	--------	27	69	32
Operation Mainstream	18	21	2	58	60	24	17
New Careers	70	61	8	12	10	40	35
Concentrated Employment Program	42	65	37	11	26	44	13
Job Opportunities in the Business Sector[3]	29	78	48	4	14	53	10
Work Incentive Program	60	40	16	10	31	41	100
Job Corps[4]	28	58	100	--------	38	50	27

[1] Substantially all the remaining enrollees were white, except in Operation Mainstream, JOBS, and Job Corps. In these programs, 10 to 12 percent were American Indians, Eskimos, or Orientals.

[2] The definition of "public assistance" used in these figures varies somewhat among programs (e.g., it may or may not include receipt of food stamps and "in kind" benefits). In the NYC program, it may relate to enrollees' families, as well as enrollees themselves.

[3] Includes only those enrollees in the JOBS Program who were hired by employers under contracts with the Department of Labor.

[4] Data relate to calendar year 1968.

complete high school; in most of them, the proportion of dropouts was much higher still. Sizable numbers of enrollees have only an eighth-grade education or less.

It will be noted that the MDTA training programs, especially on-the-job training, had a higher proportion of high school graduates among their enrollees than most of the other programs. Unlike all other work and training programs administered by the Department of Labor, MDTA training has not been limited exclusively to disadvantaged workers. At least two-thirds of the MDTA enrollees must be disadvantaged, under the program guidelines, but the remaining third of the training slots may be used to provide training for skill shortage occupations to workers who are jobless or underemployed but not necessarily disadvantaged. The New Careers program also has a relatively large proportion of trainees with a high school education. This program's objective of training for paraprofessional jobs undoubtedly tends to increase the representation of high school graduates among the disadvantaged people selected for enrollment.

The continuing shortfall in enrollment of older workers in manpower programs is another significant finding. Though nearly a fourth of all unemployed workers in the country are 45 years of age or older, only about a tenth of the enrollees in most programs (only 4 percent in JOBS) were in this age bracket. The notable exception is Operation Mainstream, a relatively small program with about 60 percent of its enrollees over 45.

Some concern has been expressed that manpower programs have devoted disproportionate resources to preparing women for jobs. The record shows that during fiscal 1969 men predominated in most programs. Girls slightly outnumbered boys in the NYC out-of-school program, and women considerably outnumbered men in both the small New Careers program and the WIN Program, which is aimed largely at mothers of dependent children. In all other programs, men were in the majority—representing 53 percent of the NYC in-school enrollees, over half of those in the CEP and MDTA programs, and more than 70 percent in the JOBS Program, the Job Corps, and Operation Mainstream.

The varying personal characteristics of the enrollees, not only in different manpower programs but even in the same program, testify to the diversity of the country's disadvantaged population and its needs. The present battery of manpower programs was developed in direct response to these needs. However, these programs are too numerous and involve too many agencies for efficient administration and coordination.

During 1969 considerable progress was achieved in increasing the effectiveness of the programs in serving their target groups (as indicated in the following discussions of major programs). But the most significant step forward in 1969 may well be the new start made toward coordination and consolidation of the many categorical programs (described in the concluding section of this chapter).

Private Industry's Enlarging Role

THE JOBS PROGRAM

A strengthened JOBS (Job Opportunities in the Business Sector) Program, to open more real jobs for the disadvantaged, is a major goal of Federal manpower policy.[5] The JOBS '70 Program, launched by the Department of Labor and the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) in November 1969, calls for extending the program nationwide. Basic changes have been made also in program direction, the most important being a new emphasis on upgrading present employees to higher level positions in addition to hiring unskilled, disadvantaged workers for entry jobs.

Approaches and Accomplishments

The JOBS Program was built on a commitment by the business community in 50 metropolitan areas in 1968 to hire many thousands of greatly disadvantaged people and give them the on-the-job training, counseling, health care, and other services they needed to become productive workers. The NAB—with regional and city offices and personnel contributed largely by private industry—was organized to enlist the support of the private business sector and secure job pledges. The Department of Labor undertook to recruit suitable job applicants, provide technical support, and meet the extra costs involved in employing people with special problems and needs.

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[5] In addition to its contributions to manpower programs through the JOBS and on-the-job training programs discussed in this section, private industry has also made a major contribution through its operation of Job Corps centers. See the section on the Job Corps later in this chapter.

Many employers have chosen to participate in the program without Federal financial assistance. In fact, close to 300,000 disadvantaged workers had been taken on by independent company efforts through January 1970, while well over 80,000 had been hired under JOBS contracts with the Department of Labor.

Of the workers hired in the federally financed projects, 3 out of every 4 were Negroes and 1 out of 8 was a Spanish American. On the average, these workers had completed 10.3 years of school, had been unemployed 23 weeks during the year before their enrollment in JOBS, and had had an annual income of $2,400. About half of them were under 22 years of age, and only 4 percent were over 45.

This program is built on the premise that immediate placement in jobs at regular wages, followed by training and supportive services, provides superior motivation for disadvantaged individuals. This premise is supported by initial experience, although it is not yet fully tested. The program has had startup problems. The most serious problem to date is turnover, which has been greater than expected, although it appears to be about on a par with the usual experience in entry-level jobs. Reports on 380,000 disadvantaged persons hired through January 1970 show that 200,000 were still on the job. Undoubtedly, generally favorable economic conditions and brisk labor markets have aided the JOBS–NAB effort.

Besides skill training, the federally supported JOBS Program provides remedial education, counseling about personal problems, assistance with health and transportation problems, and child day-care services as needed. Some management personnel have taken "sensitivity" training on how to facilitate the adjustment of these newly hired workers, and in some firms rank and file workers have been trained as coaches or counselors and paired with the newcomers in a "buddy" system.

The effectiveness of the JOBS Program, not surprisingly, appears to vary widely from one plant to another. Commitment to the program on the part of top management does not necessarily extend to the supervisory personnel who deal with the trainees on a day-to-day basis. Neither the quantity nor the quality of supportive services provided is uniform among participating companies.

But on the whole, the JOBS Program is meeting its objectives. It has surpassed the initial hiring goal and is beginning to have a real effect, on the one hand, in altering employers' hiring practices and, on the other, in raising the job aspirations and expectations of the disadvantaged. In addition, it is providing a valuable channel to employment for graduates of other manpower programs, especially the Job Corps and the Neighborhood Youth Corps.

The New JOBS '70 Program

The design for a broadened JOBS '70 Program allows the Department of Labor to accept, for the first time, contracts from employers in any part of the country rather than in a limited number of metropolitan areas. The NAB is also extending its efforts geographically.

Another major change is increased emphasis on upgrading workers already employed. This is aimed at a recognized problem—that disadvantaged workers lack the education, skills, and other characteristics traditionally required for upward progress from entry-level jobs.

In JOBS '70, the Government pays the extra costs involved in special training programs to upgrade workers caught in low-wage dead end jobs. In addition, financial assistance may be given to employers in upgrading a limited number of employees to skilled occupations with labor shortages, without regard to these employees' economic or job situation.

The new emphasis on upgrading will in no way detract from efforts to hire and train unemployed, disadvantaged workers. To receive financial assistance for upgrade training, an employer must already have placed or have a contract aimed at placing the disadvantaged in entry-level jobs under the JOBS Program.

A technical but nonetheless important change in procedures in JOBS '70 will enable employers to obtain reimbursement more quickly for outlays under the program. This change should make the program more attractive to employers and help in its planned expansion.

The Department of Labor and the National Alliance of Businessmen undertook a joint campaign in November 1969 to promote the JOBS '70 Program and inform more employers about it through brochures and visits. More than 500 specially trained State employment service staff members were assigned as Contract Service Representatives to assist interested employers in developing their JOBS '70 proposals.

Resources for the JOBS Program were substantially increased during fiscal 1970 and will be increased further during fiscal 1971, if the Congress approves the President's budget recommendations. These resources would permit achievement of the target set by the Department and the NAB of enrolling 614,000 disadvantaged persons by June 1971—a substantially higher goal than the half million placements envisioned in January 1968. It must be recognized, however, that the level of employer cooperation and hiring in the JOBS Program depends on many factors, not the least of which is the country's general economic and employment situation.

ON-THE-JOB TRAINING UNDER THE MDTA

The pace of new enrollments in on-the-job training projects under the MDTA slackened in fiscal 1969. However, the program continued to make a significant contribution to the training of unemployed and underemployed workers. Nearly 500 projects were funded during the year, and 85,000 persons were given training for a wide variety of occupations. This enrollment figure was well below the peak of 101,000 enrollments in regular MDTA–OJT projects reached in fiscal 1968, because of a lower funding allocation and higher average per trainee costs, which were boosted by the increased proportion of disadvantaged trainees requiring basic education and supportive services as well as skill training.

About 65,000 persons completed OJT projects during fiscal 1969, and 82 percent of them were employed after completion, usually in the jobs in which they received training. This is especially impressive in view of the increasing numbers of disadvantaged people in the program.

An important feature of last year's OJT program was the effort to channel resources into impoverished rural areas to complement the urban-based JOBS Program. Twenty-eight of the projects funded were located in depressed redevelopment areas (those designated by the Economic Development Administration of the Department of Commerce as eligible for redevelopment assistance). Many of the enrollees in these projects are members of minority groups; a sizable number are American Indians.

A vital part of the on-the-job training program is the national contract, which may be negotiated with a large multilocational company, a national union, or a trade association. Many contracts provide both on-the-job and classroom instruction. Through these national OJT contracts, strong leadership is put behind efforts to prepare the disadvantaged for decent jobs, and shortages of skilled workers in particular occupations are attacked on a multistate and multicity basis.

Working through national organizations which have associated local plants or units also saves resources that would otherwise have to be devoted to promoting and negotiating individual contracts.

Forty-two national contracts were in force during the latter part of 1969. The following are a few examples:

—Under a contract with the National Association of Home Builders, 1,160 enrollees are to receive carpentry training in the residential and multiunit construction industry in 21 States. Sixty percent are to have apprenticeship entry training, while 40 percent will receive upgrade training within the occupation. Besides on-the-job training, related classroom instruction is provided. By the fall of 1969, 518 trainees had been enrolled and 92 had completed the training.

—The AFL–CIO Appalachian Council, under the terms of its most recent contract, will promote and negotiate subcontracts for 3,400 trainees with employers in the 11-State Appalachian region, in cooperation with AFL–CIO local unions. Sixty-five percent of the trainees will be disadvantaged. The other 35 percent will be underemployed workers who will be trained in additional skills to help them move into better jobs. By late 1969, 690 trainees had entered this program.

—The Social Development Corporation contract authorizes 10,000 trainees in health occupations characterized by critical nationwide personnel shortages. Both newly hired and present employees are given training, in a pattern providing for career ladders and for alleviating skill shortages. By late 1969, over 8,000 trainees had completed training in dozens of occupations, including nurse aide, dietary aide, and electrocardiograph technician.

As the JOBS Program becomes nationwide during fiscal 1970, and as its parameters are enlarged to include upgrade training and training for skill shortages, the regular OJT program will be merged with JOBS. The JOBS '70 Program is designed to offer the same kinds of Government-private industry collaboration in on-the-job training that has characterized the MDTA projects, while maintaining JOBS' unique arrangements for business leadership in employing the disadvantaged. National OJT contracts will be continued, however, because of their distinct advantages as a channel for developing training projects in many geographic areas.

Manpower Training Through the Schools

Vocational education in the public schools—the major source of formal occupational training in the United States—will be greatly strengthened as the new program directions and the added financial resources authorized by the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 come into play. These amendments, and the State plans developed in accordance with them during 1969, emphasize vocational training closely attuned to job market needs. They also provide for sweeping program changes which should help to reduce school dropout rates and insure that young people receive better preparation for employment while still in school. Heavy demands on the vocational schools in another major area of responsibility—the training and retraining of jobless and underemployed youth and adults under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA)—also continued in 1969. In adult basic education, a third area of great importance in manpower development, 1969 was a year of innovation and planned program expansion, aimed at overcoming the educational deficiencies which bar many disadvantaged workers from satisfactory jobs.[6]

CLASSROOM TRAINING UNDER THE MDTA

Occupational training projects conducted by the schools have been a major element in the MDTA training program since its start in 1962. Enrollments in MDTA institutional projects rose sharply during the first 3 years of the program, from 32,000 in fiscal 1963 to 178,000 in fiscal 1966. These early years saw training projects tooled up, instructors recruited in a broad range of occupational skills, and the administrative machinery set up to give underemployed and unemployed workers new skills. By the end of this period, multioccupation projects and skills centers—where a variety of skills can be taught and supportive services can be provided to disadvantaged trainees needing this additional help—were beginning to predominate over the early, single-skill, project-by-project pattern of operations. Since 1966, however, the diversification of manpower efforts and the implementation of newer programs for disadvantaged workers (notably the Concentrated Employment and JOBS Programs discussed elsewhere in this chapter) led to some reduction in the funds available for institutional training projects. Enrollment in these projects therefore dropped—

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[6] For an additional discussion of the three programs covered in this section and their past development, see *1969 Manpower Report*, pp. 75–87.

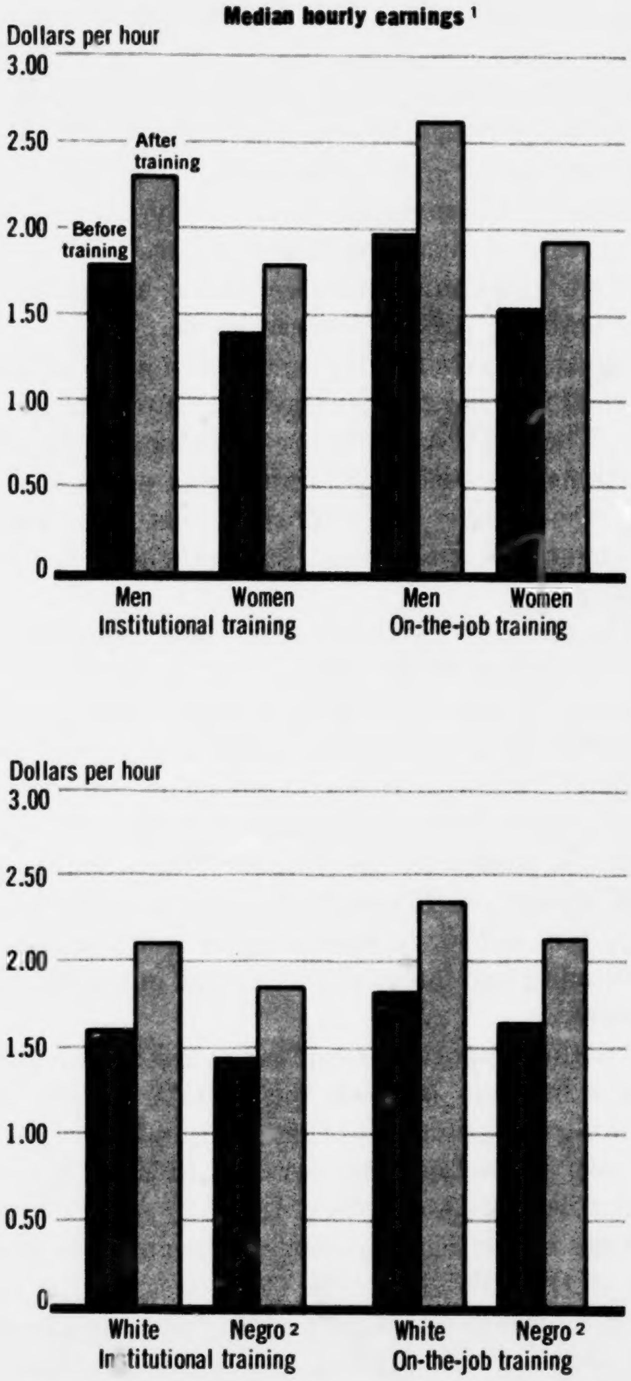
to 135,000 in fiscal 1969. The appropriations bill for fiscal 1970 and the budget request for 1971 suggest modest expansion in enrollment opportunities in the institutional program.

The MDTA institutional program has had a dual focus in the past 3 years—primarily on training the disadvantaged but also on training to meet skill shortages. Under guidelines developed in 1966, at least 65 percent of all MDTA training opportunities are to be used for the disadvantaged, and this goal has been exceeded in the institutional projects. From 60 percent in fiscal 1966, the proportion of disadvantaged trainees rose to 69 percent by fiscal 1968. Preliminary figures for 1969 indicate a similar proportion. Many of these disadvantaged youth and adults have been prepared for shortage occupations—in accordance with the additional specification of the 1966 guidelines (met by the institutional program every year) that at least 35 percent of the training must be in shortage fields.

The general success of this training program is indicated by the high rate of job placement of trainees and their subsequent earnings. Of the group who completed training in 1967 and 1968, about 75 percent were employed following training, at a median wage 32 percent higher than before training ($2.04 compared with $1.55). Both men and women, and both whites and Negroes, had substantially higher earnings after training than before (as shown in chart 14).

CHART 14

Median hourly earnings of MDTA trainees are one-third higher after training.



[1] For those who completed training in 1967-68.

[2] Includes some members of other races.

Source: Department of Labor.

Improved Techniques and Program Linkages

The increasing proportion of economically and culturally handicapped trainees has called for marked changes in recent years in instructional materials and techniques. This improvement in teaching methods has been greatly assisted by establishing five Area Manpower Institutes for Development of Staff, sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education. These institutes not only provide training for project staff but also give technical assistance to over 100 other agencies and organizations. Methods have been developed for coping with reading disabilities, repeated failures in school and on the job, poor work habits, unfamiliarity with employer needs and job requirements, negative outlooks fostered by racial discrimination or the ghetto environment, and other factors that make it difficult to succeed in an ordinary academic setting.

Cooperative occupational training is another approach that has proved successful with disadvantaged trainees. A number of these projects have been set up with local employers, using techniques similar to those developed in public school vocational programs. An instructor-coordinator works with trainees and employers to tailor the program to the needs of both. In these cooperative programs, training on the job is an extension of the classroom and is supervised by the school. The first phase, which usually includes basic education and occupational orientation, is followed by more instruction in the classroom and at the jobsite, along with guidance and counseling. A significant advantage of these arrangements is the involvement of groups of small employers whose limited and scattered manpower needs make a large centralized training project impracticable.

Efforts are continuing to develop more effective ways of meeting trainee needs for supportive services. The MDTA staffs are working out broader relationships with community organizations serving the range of trainee needs. Counseling arrangements have been strengthened wherever possible.

The training institutions have also strengthened and simplified their administrative practices, installing tighter controls over expenditures and at the same time working toward flexible, year-round project funding. As an experiment, three skills centers have been given financing for a full year, with the authority to transfer funds within the total allocation. These experiments are still underway, but initial reports suggest good results in stabilizing and improving the work of the training centers.

Another important trend is toward improvement in the linkages between the MDTA institutional training program and other manpower programs, to help in making the best use of all the funds available for manpower training purposes. A linkage occurs when another program—for example, JOBS, WIN, or the Concentrated Employment Program—uses part of its funds to purchase the services of MDTA skills centers for its enrollees. A second type of linkage is between MDTA training projects and agencies furnishing other kinds of services—for example, the State vocational rehabilitation agencies or the Adult Basic Education and Library Services programs of the Office of Education. The basic mechanism for developing and extending all of these linkages is the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (discussed later in this chapter).

Projects for Inmates of Correctional Institutions

A program testing whether MDTA training can contribute substantially to the rehabilitation and postconfinement adjustment of inmates of correctional institutions began in 1968 and reached significant proportions in 1969. By October 1969, 40 projects had been funded in 24 States. Thirty-six of the participating institutions are State operated, three are county jails, and one is a Federal prison. Training opportunities had been made available for more than 4,100 men and women inmates.

It is too soon to judge the long-term value of the program. However, progress is being made in establishing projects in different institutional environments and in offering the kinds of intensive educational and supportive services—basic education, counseling, job development, and placement—essential in working with this severely disadvantaged group. Preliminary findings of an evaluation study, to be completed at the end of 1970, suggest that this pilot program may confirm the positive results of earlier experimental and research projects—in ending the isolation of the inmate population from the community, in making institutional attitudes and practices more rehabilitative, and in sharply reducing recidivism.[7]

ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

Nearly 2 million adults have been helped by the Adult Basic Education (ABE) Program to overcome their English language limitations and to improve their basic education in preparation for occupational training and more profitable employment. Initially authorized by the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the ABE Program is administered by the U.S. Office of Education under the Adult Basic Education Act of 1966. It operates mainly through the public schools, although private nonprofit educational agencies may be funded by State departments of education to share in local teaching efforts. The program is open to anyone with less than an eighth-grade educational attainment—an estimated 24 million adult Americans.

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[7] "Evaluation of the MDTA, Section 251, Inmate Training Program" (Cambridge, Mass.: Abt Associates, Inc., under contract with the Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, in process).

During 1969, State and local public school systems developed a range of innovative projects to teach basic education in homes, churches, union halls, hospitals, and prisons. Basic education classes were conducted in the open air, in migrant labor camps, and on Indian reservations. New learning centers were established in a number of schools. It is estimated that 90,000 adults found jobs or were advanced in their present jobs after this training, and that more than 50,000 persons, compared with only 10,000 in earlier years, went directly from basic education into job-training programs.

Federal funding of the ABE Program has increased from $19 million in fiscal 1965 to $45 million in 1969—of which $2 million was for teacher training and $7 million for experimental and demonstration projects. In addition, part of the increasing manpower program resources have been and will be devoted to basic education—in MDTA projects, the Job Corps, the Work Incentive Program, and the Neighborhood Youth Corps out-of-school program. Together with the literacy training conducted by the Department of Defense, these efforts greatly outweigh those of the ABE Program. But altogether, the amount of adult basic education furnished will be insufficient to overcome quickly the educational deficiencies which contribute so heavily to poverty and unemployment in this country.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The redirection of the public vocational education program, set in motion by the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and moved forward by the 1968 amendments, should greatly strengthen the occupational preparation of the millions of young people not bound for college. The goal is to reduce the flow of unskilled, ill-prepared youth into the labor market, and in so doing, to diminish the need for remedial training programs like those provided under the Manpower Development and Training Act.

The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968

The 1968 amendments to the Vocational Education Act emphasize vocational training closely related to current job markets. They also authorize increased expenditures in a variety of fields—including consumer and homemaking education, vocational education for the handicapped and for the disadvantaged, and cooperative vocational education. Strengthened programs of research and curriculum development are called for, and "exemplary" projects to demonstrate the value of work-related education are authorized.

An outstanding feature of the State plans required by the amended act is the emphasis on local, State, and national planning for instructional programs and services. Henceforth, planning must take account of population changes, job-market needs and opportunities, school dropout rates, the rate of youth unemployment, and related factors, all projected 1 year and 5 years into the future. State plans for fiscal 1970 have been submitted to the U.S. Office of Education. After numerous revisions, all these plans have received the approval required for release of Federal funds to the States.

School administrators, in line with the intent of the act, are broadening their contacts with other government, business, and industrial organizations. Greater cooperation between the schools and the public employment service system is in evidence, and the State advisory councils required by the legislation have begun to function. In addition, a National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, called for by the 1968 legislation, has been appointed by the President. In its program reviews and evaluations, the Council will give special attention to eliminating possible duplication of postsecondary and adult programs within geographic areas and pointing out broad program needs.

Enrollments and Job Placement of Graduates

The demand for more, and more relevant, vocational education is reflected in the enrollment data. During 1968, the last year for which figures are available, enrollments in postsecondary vocational and technical programs rose by 19 percent (to 593,000); those in secondary programs by 9 percent (to 3.8 million). Enrollments in adult programs, however, rose only 2 percent (to 3.0 million).

Particularly rapid growth occurred in programs designed specifically for students with physical or socioeconomic handicaps or other special needs. Enrollments in these programs exceeded 110,000 in 1968, a figure increased by half over the year before. In addition, nearly as large a number of such students were enrolled in regular programs. However, these two groups together accounted for only about 3 in every 100 students in public vocational education in 1968.

Enrollments increased in all occupational areas except agriculture, down by 9 percent in 1968. (See table 4.) Even in agriculture, there was a significant enrollment gain in off-farm programs (13 percent over the previous year). The greatest enrollment increases occurred in fields with strong manpower demands—the distributive, health, and office occupations. However, the largest single enrollment category continued to be home economics, which will not be included in vocational education hereafter. The 1968 amendments set up consumer and homemaking education as a separate educational category.

Enrollments in cooperative programs, which tie industry and schools together for realistic job preparation of youth, were still relatively small in 1968. Altogether, fewer than 250,000 youth and adults (3 percent of total enrollments) participated in cooperative programs that year. The 1968 amendments give new legislative authorization for these programs, however, and the 1970 budget provides for a significant increase.

The job placement record for graduates of vocational programs continues to be good. Most graduates who sought jobs—about 3 out of every 4—obtained employment in the field for which they were trained or in a related field, and many others found work of other kinds. The demand for advanced preparation was reflected by an even higher placement rate for students at the postsecondary level; of those completing such programs, 87 percent were placed in training-related fields. (See table 5.) In October 1968, the unemployment rate among graduates of secondary-school vocational programs was 7 percent, half that for all June 1968 high school graduates who entered the labor force.

Some Important Program Directions

The new program directions and added resources authorized by the 1968 legislation should enable the vocational schools to give their students still better employment preparation. With these re-

TABLE 4. ENROLLMENTS IN FEDERALLY AIDED VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL EDUCATION, BY FIELD OF EDUCATION, FISCAL YEARS 1967–68

[Numbers in thousands]

Field of education	Number		Percent distribution		Percent change, fiscal year 1967–68
	Fiscal year 1967	Fiscal year 1968	Fiscal year 1967	Fiscal year 1968	
Total	7, 048	7, 534	100. 0	100. 0	6. 9
Agriculture	935	851	13. 3	11. 3	−9. 0
Distributive	481	575	6. 8	7. 6	19. 5
Health	115	141	1. 6	1. 9	22. 6
Home economics [1]	2, 187	2, 283	31. 0	30. 3	4. 4
Office	1, 572	1, 736	22. 3	23. 0	10. 4
Technical	266	270	3. 8	3. 6	1. 5
Trades and industry	1, 491	1, 629	21. 2	21. 6	9. 3
Other [2]	-----------	49	-----------	. 7	-----------

[1] The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 removed home economics from the vocational education curriculums and established consumer and homemaking education as a separate category.

[2] Includes developing programs which do not fit precisely into the occupational groups listed.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.

TABLE 5. FOLLOWUP OF ENROLLEES WHO HAD COMPLETED VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS, FISCAL YEAR 1968

[Numbers in thousands]

Status at time of followup	Number of enrollees			Percent distribution		
	All programs	Secondary	Post-secondary	All programs	Secondary	Post-secondary
Program requirements completed	885. 2	706. 1	179. 1	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0
Placed or available for placement	481. 1	365. 4	115. 7	54. 3	51. 7	64. 6
Not available for placement	304. 5	267. 5	36. 9	34. 4	37. 9	20. 6
Data not available	99. 6	73. 2	26. 5	11. 3	10. 4	14. 8
Placed or available for placement	481. 1	365. 4	115. 7	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0
Placed related to training, full time	365. 4	264. 4	101. 0	76. 0	72. 4	87. 3
Placed unrelated to training, full time	66. 8	59. 9	6. 8	13. 9	16. 4	5. 9
Placed part time	20. 9	17. 4	3. 5	4. 3	4. 8	3. 0
Unemployed	28. 0	23. 7	4. 4	5. 8	6. 5	3. 8
Not available for placement	304. 5	267. 5	36. 9	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0
Entered Armed Forces	53. 1	45. 4	7. 7	17. 4	17. 0	20. 9
Continued school full time	209. 8	188. 5	21. 3	68. 9	70. 5	57. 7
Other reasons	41. 6	33. 6	7. 9	13. 7	12. 6	21. 4

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.

sources, programs can be tailored, on the one hand, to the needs of students with cultural and other handicaps and, on the other, to occupational changes due to advancing technology. There is constant need to review and update curriculums to accord with technological developments. Widely needed also is expansion of facilities for instruction of apprentices to aid in increasing apprentice training and relieving the shortages of skilled workers in many trades.

But there are still broader problems to be faced. As the National Advisory Council said in its first report to the Congress in July 1969:

> Our national attitude, which regards vocational education as inferior to an education capped by 4 years of college, must be changed; substantial Federal funds are needed to support curriculum development, teacher training, and pilot programs in vocational education; and new preventive vocational education programs are needed, reducing the financial, personal, and social costs of unemployment.

Redirection of Youth Programs

Each year more than half a million teenagers—600,000 in 1968—drop out of school before high school graduation and, all too often, swell the ranks of jobless youth. The unemployment rate for teenagers—at 13 percent in 1968—has been persistently three times that for workers of all ages. For Negro teenagers it remains much higher still, especially in city poverty areas, where the unemployment rate for these youth was an explosive 27 percent in 1968.

The persistence of excessively high youth unemployment and school dropout rates calls for strengthened efforts to aid and motivate young people to complete high school and obtain the training they need to become self-supporting. To this end, the Government's two main programs of work and training for disadvantaged youth—the Neighborhood Youth Corps and the Job Corps—have been carefully evaluated, and major improvements in the administration and content of these programs are underway.

NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS

The Neighborhood Youth Corps, established in 1964 under the Economic Opportunity Act, has three main components—an in-school program designed to provide paid jobs for youth inclined to drop out of school and thus encourage their continued school enrollment; a summer program with similar objectives; and an out-of-school program for those who have already left school and need work experience and remedial education to compete in the job market. The NYC has enrolled more than 2 million youth since its inception.

The in-school program, which served 134,000 youth[8] in 843 projects in fiscal 1969, has displayed a mixed picture of failure and success, according to evaluations and research studies conducted by and for the Department of Labor.

Almost universally, enrollees (in out-of-school as well as in-school programs) reported that their NYC experience had been both helpful and pleasant. Moreover, personal relationships with counselors and supervisors were found to be generally satisfactory. One study particularly emphasized the economic significance of NYC wages to in-school enrollees; over a 2-year period, NYC was the principal, and frequently the only, source of income for the great majority of enrollees. And the wages were spent responsibly—that is, for household maintenance, contributions to families, and clothes, with only a small fraction going for recreation and luxury items.

On the other hand, the studies also revealed program inadequacies. They indicated that much of the work done was "make work," affording little meaningful work experience or training, and that the effectiveness of the program in reducing school dropout rates was dubious.

These studies, coupled with operating experience, have resulted in a reordering of priorities. The aim is to develop a more individually oriented program, which will offer real preparation for employment to students deemed potential dropouts.

To improve enrollees' academic achievement, remedial education and tutoring will be provided. Preparation for employment will be given through skill training and work experience which will help enrollees acquire the work habits and attitudes necessary for holding a job. Project staff will also attempt to locate jobs for enrollees after they leave the program or assist them in going on to higher education or entering other training programs. Enrollees will be encouraged to stay in school not only by the financial assistance provided but also through cultural enrichment activities and personal and vocational counseling.

In a similar shift in emphasis, the 1970 summer program will seek project sponsors who can provide really meaningful work experience, and remedial education will be a significant program component for the first time. Announcement of the summer program is being made several months earlier in 1970 than in former years to allow time for better advance planning.

A major restructuring of the out-of-school program is being undertaken. Certain projects have been highly successful—for example, a cooperative education program for young, mostly Negro, girls which alternated classroom training in clerical occupations with actual work experience. But all too often, the 16- to 22-year-old enrollees have been provided mainly income maintenance and an "aging vat" experience. The restructured program will deal with the special difficulties that confront 16- and 17-year-old dropouts attempting to enter the labor force without marketable skills.

In fiscal 1969 there were 591 out-of-school projects enrolling 120,000 young people[9] who, on the average, were 18 years old, had completed 10 grades of school, and had dropped out of school at least a year prior to NYC enrollment. Under the new program design, out-of-school youth aged 18 and older will be channeled into other programs, including JOBS and the Job Corps. Focusing on 16- and 17-year-olds, the new NYC out-of-school program will provide intensive prevocational training with both academic and occupational content. This training will last at least a year, compared with an average of less than 6 months under the old program design. Upon reaching 18, most of the youth should be ready to compete in the open job market. If they are not, they will be directed to opportunities for further education and training. The goal of encouraging return to school has not been abandoned, but it is recognized that for many dropouts repeated failure in school in the past makes their return highly improbable.

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[8] Figure includes both first-time enrollments and individuals already in the program at the beginning of the year. It is therefore larger than first-time enrollments as reported in appendix table F-1.

[9] See footnote 8.

Each enrollee will be offered an appropriate combination of services, including counseling and testing, assistance in reenrolling in school, health services, remedial education, skill training, work experience, and personal development activities. Active efforts will be made to find appropriate jobs for trainees, and followup services will be provided while they are becoming established in these jobs. Trainees will receive stipends rather than wages, which previously absorbed the bulk of project funds, in order to free funds for the more intensive and individualized services.

Although the out-of-school program will not operate primarily as a feeder into other manpower programs, the local NYC projects will be required to develop links with these programs. For example, a youth might be persuaded to return to school if he could be assured of enrollment in the in-school NYC or in a cooperative vocational education course. Enrollees' needs for basic education might be met by referral to an ongoing class under the Adult Basic Education Program. The enrollee who is still not job ready upon reaching 18 might be placed through the JOBS Program or the Public Service Careers Program; or he could be referred to MDTA training, where he would qualify for a training allowance considerably larger than the NYC stipend.

The plan is to convert about half the out-of-school projects to the new design during fiscal 1970, while the remainder, some 260, are continued under the old design. Also in fiscal 1970, a few pilot projects will be started in depressed rural areas, in an effort to prepare disadvantaged 16- and 17-year-olds for out-migration to other rural or small metropolitan areas offering better opportunities for jobs or training.

JOB CORPS

The delegation of the Job Corps from the Office of Economic Opportunity to the Department of Labor at the beginning of fiscal 1970 brings this residential program for low-income youth within the framework of a manpower system which is becoming increasingly comprehensive. The transfer should benefit the Job Corps through improved recruitment and selection of Corps members and by providing more varied opportunities for them, both in the Corps and after they leave it. It should also benefit other programs by making services offered by the Job Corps available to some of their enrollees.

The Job Corps, which was established in 1965, had the specific purpose of removing disadvantaged youth from home or community environments so deprived or so disruptive as to prevent their rehabilitation. Certain presumptions, in addition to that of need for new surroundings, guided the original program: That shifting youth from urban ghettos to rural settings would be rehabilitative; that intensive supportive services like basic education, "life skills" preparation, and activities to promote physical development and offer recreation experience were as important to these youth as skill training; and that each center should be substantially self-sufficient.

Immediately before restructuring of the Job Corps early in 1969, 82 rural conservation centers for young men were operating, with an average enrollment of 150. Of these, 75 were run by the Departments of Agriculture or the Interior, two by States, and five by the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico. There were six large centers for young men, five of which were operated by private companies (average enrollment 1,800). Although denoted as urban, these centers were some miles from cities, usually on abandoned military bases. The 17 urban centers for young women (with an average enrollment of about 500) were run mainly by private firms. Both a large men's center and a women's center were operated by a nonprofit educational foundation sponsored by the State of Texas; one women's center by the University of Oregon; and two women's centers by private, nonprofit organizations.

Job Corps program offerings included basic education, vocational training, and personal development at all centers, plus actual work experience, primarily at conservation centers. The initial emphasis on conservation work at the conservation centers later diminished in favor of more literacy and skill training, similar to that provided at "urban" centers from the beginning.

Formal evaluation and the practical lessons of operating experience showed that, although some of the underlying premises of the Job Corps were sound, others were questionable. Extremely high dropout rates in the first 30 days following enrollment cast doubt on the wisdom of locating enrollees far from home and in isolated areas. Moreover, separation of the training site from the areas where enrollees would be seeking jobs limited effective job development and on-the-job training opportunities. The idea of self-sufficient centers was challenged on the grounds of expense and lack of efficiency. In addition, it became clear that not all of the urgent needs of many youth—such as for remedial education—were being effectively met at all the centers.

The premise that residential service is needed for some disadvantaged youth has proved sound, as has the premise that the severe problems of this target population will yield only to intensive services in addition to skill training. Yet these principles were not being applied effectively in the program as a whole.

Moreover, the increasing availability of other manpower programs altered the context in which the Job Corps task of reaching, teaching, and training hard-core youth was undertaken. In 1964, only 27,000 youth were enrolled in MDTA programs. In 1969, the total number enrolled approximated 790,000 in NYC, MDTA, and other programs (including the Job Corps).

Accordingly, the Department of Labor undertook a complete reshaping of the Job Corps in terms of its purpose, size, structure, and relationship to other manpower programs. Fifty-nine of the least effective centers were closed, and other program capabilities tapped to serve the Corps members who were released. Thirty new, relatively small centers are planned, some with nonresident enrollees. Three such centers were open in the latter half of 1969—in New Jersey (Camp Kilmer); Koko Head, Hawaii; and Phoenix, Ariz.

As primarily residential centers, the new Job Corps centers are to be located (as are existing centers) in former hotels, hospitals, military bases, or similar facilities. They must have living space, including dormitory facilities and a cafeteria, and—either on or near the center—classrooms, vocational shops, a clinic, a library, and recreational facilities. When the new centers are in full operation, the Job Corps will have places for about 25,000 youth.

In the future, the emphasis in the Job Corps will be on program quality and on coupling of its unique residential services with other programs. For example, the Job Corps may use openings in MDTA skills centers for Corpsmen and may also refer ex-Corpsmen to MDTA skill training, as well as to the JOBS Program, or to industry apprenticeship programs. Conversely, enrollment in the Job Corps offers an additional option for those served by Concentrated Employment Programs, while the NYC and other work-experience programs may call on Job Corps' special residential services to meet the needs of some enrollees. The participation of Job Corps in CAMPS will help to bring about these program linkages.

The 30 new residential centers will be of two types: In-city or near-city centers for Corpsmen who will live away from home during the workweek, some of which will also serve nonresident enrollees; and small residential centers without training facilities, to house and support youth with severe personal problems who will be enrolled in work-training programs in the community.

The new centers will be operated either by private industry or by nonprofit organizations on a contract basis. Increasingly, contracts for Job Corps centers will involve not only center operation but also responsibility for placement of a substantial number of graduates in jobs with the contracting firm or other firms in the same industry or area.

Some 35 percent of the openings in the new centers are planned for young women, compared with 28 percent of total Job Corps openings in fiscal 1969. Some of the women residents will be unmarried mothers, for whom child-care services will be furnished at the center or in the community.

The added flexibility provided by the 30 new centers will generate greater responsiveness to the differing needs of the target population, as poor youth are recruited, trained, and placed without the necessity of moving to a distant area. These relatively small centers should do a better job with delinquent youth who are difficult to handle in large camps and often unwelcome in strange communities. The in-city residential centers hold special promise of helping "high-risk" delinquents, who have not as yet been reached by the Job Corps in significant numbers. Highly individualized attention and work with delinquents' families to improve home environments are regarded as keys to success.

Thus, the revamped Job Corps will offer a variety of arrangements for different segments of the target population—regional skill training centers, especially useful in supplying manpower services to youth from rural and other areas with limited vocational training opportunities; conservation centers in rural areas to correct severe educational deficiencies and offer a start up the occupational ladder; and the new urban centers with their emphasis on service to greatly disadvantaged youth in a particular city or metropolitan area. Other improvements which are actively sought include greater involvement of both management and labor and of State agencies, especially those concerned with vocational education.

Closer ties with the public employment service system should permit better screening and selection of trainees and better job development and placement services for graduates. Increased use will be made of volunteers, already successfully used in recruiting (Women in Community Service—WICS); in tutoring and "big brother" roles (Volunteers in Service to America—VISTA—and others), and in followup after training (Joint Action in Community Service—JACS). Further improvements are expected in community relations, a major hazard in the early Job Corps experience; and additional use of Job Corps facilities and personnel in summer months—for example, in NYC summer programs—is anticipated.

New Approaches to Employing the Disadvantaged

Two new programs for training and employing the disadvantaged warrant special attention. The Public Service Careers Program, which is scheduled to begin operations early in 1970, will function in the public sector of the economy somewhat as the JOBS Program does in private industry. The Work Incentive Program, which was authorized in 1967 but did not reach significant size until 1969, helps employable people in families receiving AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children) to become self-supporting.

PUBLIC SERVICE CAREERS PROGRAM

The Public Service Careers (PSC) Program will provide jobs in government service agencies for disadvantaged workers and also assist in upgrading employees in dead end, low-paid positions. The program will operate within merit principles of personnel selection. Its aim will be to overcome both the institutional barriers and the educational and other deficiencies which restrict the employment of disadvantaged people in the rapidly growing public sector.

The more than 80,000 units of State and local government in the United States had some 9 million employees in 1969 and may well employ over 11 million by 1975. These diverse government units use workers in a wide variety of occupations, some calling for highly specialized skills, others requiring little preparation. Examples of occupations for which disadvantaged persons can readily be trained include mail clerk, guard, switchboard operator, messenger, and payroll clerk.

To help meet growing manpower requirements and, at the same time, open permanent jobs for the disadvantaged, the PSC Program will pay part of the costs of on-the-job training and intensive supportive services for disadvantaged workers hired by public agencies. It will also help to finance upgrading activities. The fiscal 1970 appropriations bill includes $47 million for the PSC Program; this would fund about 26,000 enrollment opportunities.

The first PSC projects will be pilot or experimental in nature. They will use innovative techniques and will be designed to test program concepts. As experience is gained with these early projects, those which prove successful will be expanded and replicated in other parts of the country.

The PSC Program has four plans, or categories. The concept of "hire now, train later" is central to the first category, *employment and upgrading in State and local governments.* Disadvantaged workers will be hired for existing entry jobs. Their salaries and fringe benefits will be paid from the agency's regularly budgeted funds, while PSC funds will cover the extra costs involved in removing the barriers to employment of disadvantaged people. The barriers to be attacked include inadequate education; lack of occupational skills and of orientation to the world of work; problems with respect to health, transportation, and child care; and institutional barriers such as outmoded job structures and inadequate recruitment and training systems. Not only adults but also disadvantaged youth aged 17 or over may be hired under this plan.

The upgrading phase of the program will be restricted to agencies that have an entry project. This upgrading component is designed to help agency personnel staff in restructuring and modernizing their merit systems in order to facilitate employee advancement. Emphasis will be on the underutilized, low-income employee—the worker whose advancement has been hindered by artificial or only partly justified requirements.

Under the second option, *employment and upgrading in Federal grant-in-aid programs*, the Department of Labor will negotiate agreements with other Federal agencies to build arrangements for PSC projects into their grant-in-aid programs. For example, public hospitals and school districts receiving grants-in-aid might set up projects similar to those provided for under the first option. The PSC enrollees in such an agency will have the same retention rights as the agency's regular employees; it is expected that their jobs will be permanent. Again, PSC funds will cover the extra cost of removing barriers to employment of the disadvantaged.

New Careers in human service, the third PSC component, will incorporate existing New Careers projects authorized under the Economic Opportunity Act. A new feature of the program is its inclusion of youth; the minimum age for enrollment has been lowered from 22 to 18 (not 17 as in other PSC components).

For the most part, this phase of the PSC Program will be limited to ongoing New Careers projects, some of which are operated by private nonprofit agencies. Such agencies will continue to sponsor projects, as funding permits, making this the only PSC component with an option of private sponsorship.

Entry employment and upgrading in the Federal service, the fourth PSC component, is still in the developmental stage. It will focus primarily on expansion of the Civil Service Commission's new Worker-Trainee Supplement to the register of persons eligible for maintenance and service worker jobs. Under this supplement, a worker may be hired for a regular job after having been rated suitable for it through an interview rather than a traditional employment examination. After successful completion of the normal probationary requirements, the worker, without having to pass further qualifying standards (except for postal jobs), becomes a regular employee of the agency where he works.

In addition, approximately 1,000 unskilled employees in several agencies will, if possible, be prepared for apprenticeships—through coaching for the qualifying examinations and test revision. One agency has already greatly increased the proportion of successful apprenticeship applicants by revising tests so that they focus on learning ability rather than acquired knowledge.

The PSC Program has been structured so that it will benefit from and complement activities and services of other manpower programs. The public employment service system will be used not only to reach and recruit disadvantaged workers but also to counsel participants regarding available training and supportive services. MDTA skills centers will provide job-related training for PSC participants. The Concentrated Employment Programs will also refer workers to PSC and will provide trainees with supportive services. Participants in other manpower programs—including WIN, the NYC, and the Job Corps—may be directed to the PSC Program if that is the most appropriate source of employment for them. In addition, PSC projects may provide employment for residents of Model Cities target areas.

WORK INCENTIVE PROGRAM

The Work Incentive Program (WIN), established by the 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act, has in its brief history provided a foundation for the much larger program of family assistance that would be authorized by the Administration's proposed Family Assistance Act.[10]

The goal of the WIN Program is economic independence for all employable persons aged 16 or over in families now receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). WIN projects first enrolled clients, nearly 6,000 of them, in October 1968. By the end of fiscal 1969, the level of enrollments rose to 62,000, as 38 States and the Trust Territories participated in the program. Operations are beginning in the remaining States during fiscal 1970. Enrollments are expected to reach 150,000 by the end of fiscal 1971, making

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[10] This act would replace legislation authorizing WIN (part C, title IV of the Social Security Act). It would reconstitute the WIN Program in fiscal 1971 as the manpower component of the overall program. See the chapter on Income Maintenance and Work Incentives for a further discussion of the Family Assistance Program.

The WIN Program followed and absorbed a smaller program for welfare recipients and other needy persons set up under the Economic Opportunity Act. See *1969 Manpower Report,* pp. 105–106.

WIN one of the largest manpower programs. Nevertheless, it will be several years before WIN, or any successor program, can enroll the entire target population—the estimated 1.1 million adults on welfare rolls for whom jobs and job training are possible avenues to self-sufficiency.

The WIN Program is administered by the Department of Labor, through State employment security agencies. Local welfare agencies refer clients to employment service offices for interviewing, testing, counseling, and placement in jobs, job training, or special work experience, depending on their degree of job readiness. Stress is on helping clients to obtain meaningful jobs as rapidly as possible—at not less than the minimum wage or the prevailing wage, whichever is higher. Another possible alternative, for those least ready for training or jobs in the regular economy, is special work projects run by public or private nonprofit organizations, but so far such projects have been set up in only one State. All WIN enrollees receive their welfare benefits plus some training incentive payments. Welfare agencies continue to supply supportive medical and social services, including child day-care services.

A significant feature of the WIN Program has been the development and implementation, during its first year of operation, of the "team concept" of providing services, in accordance with an individual employability plan for each enrollee. Staff members are organized into a team, usually composed of a counselor, a manpower specialist, a work-training specialist, a coach, and a clerk-stenographer. Team members, each contributing his special knowledge and experience, work with the trainee to develop an employability plan, specifying the training and other services he will need to attain a job he both wants and is capable of performing.

The team concept provides for a limited caseload, allowing each member time to know and work with each participant. It also calls for a continuity of interdisciplinary services, in such sequence or combination as may be needed to assist the trainee in progressing toward a definite employability goal. The team concept has proved so successful that it is being introduced into other manpower programs.

Guidelines developed by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare govern the screening of the AFDC caseload to determine "appropriate" referrals to WIN. So far, referrals have been concentrated among male family heads, youth, and mothers who volunteer. Mothers are not being forced into the program, but they are volunteering in sizable numbers.

In its early phase, the WIN Program has encountered a number of problems. In particular, there is a shortage of good child day-care arrangements in most areas where the program is operating. The law specifies that child care must be provided to all persons who need it during enrollment, but the extreme difficulty in furnishing child-care services has meant that some would-be participants have been denied enrollment. Others have entered the program only to drop out in a short time because babysitting or other tenuous child-care arrangements broke down.

Space in institutional day-care facilities is extremely scarce. WIN funds are available for the purchase of services but not for the development of centers. Moreover, the various Federal, State, and local regulations governing child care create further complications in obtaining services for WIN enrollees.

Quality day care is not only scarce but also expensive. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare estimates the cost of after-school and summer care for school-age children at $400 per child per year, and for full-day care for preschoolers at $1,600. This situation affects not only welfare mothers who might enroll in WIN, but also others either struggling to pay for child care out of low incomes or prevented from seeking needed work by the lack of child-care services.

In the long run, the solution lies in increased funding for day care. In addition, better use should be made of existing resources through the Coordinated Community Child Care (4–C) program, a pilot interagency effort to coordinate area planning and resources. The present effort in the WIN Program is to increase purchases of day-care services through existing centers. But realistically, the shortage of good child-care services is likely to be an inhibiting factor in the WIN Program fo some time to come.

Another problem has been the confusion characterizing selection, referral, and enrollment procedures. There is lack of consistency among State welfare agencies in determining who is appropriate for referral and among State manpower agencies in determining who should be enrolled. For example, in some areas, persons who have transportation, child-care, medical, and personal problems, at least theoretically capable of solution, have been denied referral. In some areas persons for whom manpower services are unavailable are enrolled and kept for long, demoralizing periods in a holding status.

Other problems concern implementation of the team concept—in the intake phase the workload overburdens counselors and leaves other members relatively free; administrative control of projects—sometimes the sheer volume of paperwork threatens operations; and the tendency to "cream" applicants to show a good initial record of job placement and other services rendered.

These are primarily start-up problems, perhaps inevitable in a new program. They should be alleviated over time, as instructions are clarified, training is given to local staffs, and experience functions as the great teacher. Already the positive aspects of the program far outweigh the problems, according to objective program evaluators working under contract with the Department of Labor.

Services to Returning Veterans

More than a million men returned to civilian life from the Armed Forces during 1969, raising the number of Vietnam-era veterans in the population to 3.6 million. With a major deescalation of hostilities, an increase in the number of separations can be expected, as the Armed Forces are cut back from 3.5 million in late 1969 toward their 1965 strength of 2.7 million.

Many ex-GI's have difficulties in readjusting to civilian life, even with employment at its recent high levels. A large proportion of the men separated—estimates run as high as 200,000 in 1969—have less than a high school education and are handicapped in competing for desirable jobs. Those who have completed high school often lack meaningful civilian work experience. The problems faced by Negro veterans, about 100,000 of whom were separated in 1969, are of particular concern; many return to urban ghettos, where unemployment rates are far above the national average.

Recognizing that the problems confronting veterans today may be different from those of the past, the President in June 1969 appointed a Cabinet-level Committee on the Vietnam Veteran to study and evaluate all Government programs and benefits for veterans. An interim report of that Committee called for expansion of inservice counseling and vocational education. It recommended greater efforts to place veterans in suitable employment through advanced placement techniques, such as computerized job banks, and through training and recruitment of veterans for public service jobs. In particular, veterans who gained skills in the military should be encouraged to utilize those skills in civilian jobs. To encourage more veterans to resume their education, the Committee recommended higher educational assistance allowances, special courses to help educationally disadvantaged veterans qualify for college, and priority consideration for all returning Vietnam veterans in student assistance programs.

As the following discussion indicates, many activities in line with the Committee's recommendations are already underway.

EMPLOYMENT SERVICES

Some veterans return to jobs they held before going into service or would have attained had they not entered the Armed Forces. The Office of Veterans' Reemployment Rights in the Department of Labor notifies veterans of their reemployment rights and, in contested situations, contacts employers to clarify veterans' eligibility for reemployment. If necessary, veterans' complaints are referred to the Department of Justice for court action.

Other veterans are experiencing at least temporary difficulty in finding suitable employment. In fiscal 1969, 177,000 servicemen reentering civilian life were tided over by Unemployment Compensation for Ex-servicemen. However, their period of unemployment was relatively short; the average duration of benefits for ex-servicemen was 9.3 weeks, compared with 11.4 weeks for all unemployment insurance claimants.

The key institution in assisting veterans' occupational readjustment is the Federal-State employment service system, which is required by law to give special help to veterans, including priority in referral to jobs and training. In 1969, about a third of the 3.3 million male applicants placed in nonfarm jobs were veterans. Each local office has a person assigned, full or part time, to assure that veterans receive appropriate services. To the extent possible, job market information and guidance are provided to servicemen at military bases, separation centers, and hospitals.

In addition, an effort is made to contact each returning veteran, to inform him of services available and invite him to visit the local employment office. This is usually done through mail contacts, but in some cases telephone calls or personal visits are made. In a number of large cities, employment service personnel are stationed at Veterans Assistance Centers operated by the Veterans Administration; these centers seek to direct veterans to the full range of services—housing, health, employment, or education—which may be needed.

The new computerized Job Bank program of the employment service promises to increase the effectiveness of service to all applicants. Because the veterans' specialists in local offices will have direct access to these banks, a substantial increase in veterans' placements is expected.

PROGRAMS TO ENHANCE SERVICEMEN'S CIVILIAN SKILLS

Most members of the Armed Forces receive training and experience of potential value in civilian life. According to a recent Department of Defense estimate, about half the men leaving the military service have acquired skills applicable to civilian jobs—many of them in technical or skilled occupations. However, veterans often fail to utilize these skills after leaving military service.

The servicemen (about 1 out of every 5) who have had only combat-related assignments may or may not be equipped for civilian jobs, depending on their prior education and work experience. For some, the Transition Program administered by the Department of Defense offers counseling, training, and employment assistance. On-the-job training courses are arranged with public agencies or private employers, at no cost to the Government, whenever the servicemen can be spared from official duties; 50 of the nation's largest companies and over 1,000 smaller ones are cooperating. In addition, servicemen are permitted to attend MDTA institutional training courses on or near military bases. By September 1969, 84,500 GI's had received training, and 519,000 received counseling, under the Transition Program. During fiscal 1969, over 1,300 servicemen were trained to be law-enforcement officers, and 5,000 qualified for Post Office positions after having taken training offered in the program.

It has not been practicable to set up courses in most overseas bases, however, and courses at mainland bases must be worked into the duty schedules. To provide a better atmosphere for effective training without interruption of military duties, the Administration is considering the establishment of comprehensive manpower service centers on a pilot basis at some major military installations. One of the problems that would have to be faced in this proposed experiment is that the training will occur at a base far removed from the veteran's home, although the Department of Labor has found that training is likely to be most successful when tied to the local job market where the trainee will live.

The Armed Forces are also helping to upgrade the capabilities of unskilled young men through a program known as "Project 100,000." Under this plan, enlistment standards have been lowered to admit draftees or volunteers who would not routinely qualify because of educational and physical limitations. As of September 1969, 225,000 youth had been absorbed into the Armed Forces under this program. For them, military service may provide a fresh start toward satisfactory civilian jobs. The Department of Defense plans to continue this option for disadvantaged youth, despite prospective cuts in inductions which will affect the proportions of skilled and unskilled personnel required in the future.

MANPOWER TRAINING AND PUBLIC SERVICE EMPLOYMENT

Short-term, job-oriented training under the MDTA, with a remedial education component where needed, can help many veterans to qualify for meaningful jobs. The number of Vietnam veterans in need of skill training is estimated to be at least 300,000 per year. In fiscal 1969 about 46,000 veterans were enrolled in MDTA institutional and on-the-job training programs, in addition to the larger number in apprenticeship and other on-the-job training under the GI bill (as discussed below). Plans are underway to increase the number of Vietnam veterans to be trained under MDTA and other Federal manpower programs.

The Civil Service Commission, of course, has a long-standing program of veteran's preference in appointment to Federal jobs. Under a new plan instituted by Executive order in February 1968, this preference is broadened. A Vietnam-era veteran with less than 1 year of education beyond high school may be hired on a priority basis to fill a job in any of the first five levels of the Federal service, provided he agrees to pursue a part-time education program under the GI bill. The plan also helps qualified veterans who apply for positions at higher levels by giving their applications immediate attention.

In addition, the new Public Service Careers Program of the Department of Labor (discussed earlier in this chapter) offers a substantial opportunity for returning veterans to obtain training and jobs in a broad range of occupations in Federal, State, and local government agencies.

TRAINING AND EDUCATION UNDER THE GI BILL

The Veterans' Readjustment Benefits Act of 1966, the present-day GI bill, is the most important potential source of aid to veterans' readjustment. Under this act, veterans may receive benefits while in on-the-job training or going to school or college.

By October 1969, 63,000 Vietnam-era veterans had taken advantage of skill training opportunities under the GI bill, including those serving apprenticeships. During the past year, the Veterans Administration developed a program providing benefits to veterans training for police and firefighting jobs under this feature of the GI bill. As of March 1969, 3,700 veterans in 150 different locations were pursuing on-the-job police training.

The overall number of Vietnam-era veterans receiving educational and training benefits exceeded 900,000 by October 1969.[11] These veterans represented only one-fourth of those eligible. However, the Veterans Administration expects that the number signing up for educational benefits will increase later on; many veterans defer going back to school until after a period of employment. After World War II, the proportion who enrolled under the GI bill ultimately reached 50 percent, while 42 percent of the Korean veterans eventually received some training.

An important factor influencing participation in education under the GI bill is the level of benefits. The current basic allotment of $130 per month was last adjusted in October 1967 to reflect the rise in living and educational costs since the program was launched in May 1966. The President's Committee on the Vietnam Veteran has recommended a 13-percent increase in monthly allowances to cover the further rises in living and educational costs since October 1967. The 1971 budget request includes funds for increased allowances.

The majority of veterans now using the GI educational benefits (about 63 percent in April 1969) are taking college or postgraduate training—reflecting the large proportion who are high school graduates (more than 75 percent). To encourage high school completion by those who dropped out of school, a special provision was included in the 1966 GI bill permitting veterans to receive benefits while taking remedial courses leading to high school completion, without affecting their entitlement to benefits for college or vocational training. However, only 31,000 of the more than 600,000 school dropouts who have left military service during the Vietnam era have gone back to school under this plan. (Others have, of course, taken vocational training under the MDTA, other provisions of the GI bill, or the Transition Program.)

It may be assumed that many of the dropouts do not want to return to school, where they had a record of failure, especially when jobs of some kind are relatively easy to get. Others may not know about the assistance available or may be unwilling to return to regular school and attend classes with children or teenagers. For them, special adult remedial courses—for example, in community colleges—would be more appropriate. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is urging college officials in areas where veterans are concentrated to make greater efforts to enroll ex-GI's with educational deficiencies and to ease their transition into the academic environment.

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[11] This total includes servicemen taking part of their GI entitlement while still on active duty.

Encouraging indications that barriers to college education can be removed for veterans who lack the usual academic qualifications but have capability for career development come from some small experiments now being conducted by the Department of Defense. The Department arranged, for example, for a small number of servicemen at Fort Leonard Wood to enroll in an experimental program at Webster College in St. Louis. After taking remedial and refresher courses to bring them up to admission standards, they are now studying for degrees in education and, at the same time, working part time as trainees in the St. Louis school system. A similar program is underway in the City University system of New York. Servicemen at Fort Dix have been selected for intensive preparatory training while in the service, leading to admission by community colleges, universities, and technical schools after separation. None of these men would have considered going to college were it not for this special program.

Another example is the Career Opportunities Program, established by the Office of Education under the Education Professional Development Act, to attract capable persons, including veterans, to careers in education. Project grants are made to local school districts, aimed at strengthening services in low-income neighborhoods. Veterans applying for trainee positions in these projects need not have college degrees and will have opportunities to advance to responsible positions through inservice training and college-level instruction.

The possibility of extending programs of this kind needs to be explored, both as an aid to veterans and as a means of meeting the continuing shortage of specialists in health services, social welfare, and other fields.

Planning, Administering, and Delivering Manpower Services

The diversity of present manpower programs and of the problems to which they are addressed and the multiplicity of efforts undertaken during 1969 to strengthen these programs are evident from the preceding discussion. These efforts to improve and restructure specific programs have represented one of the main thrusts of manpower policy under the new Administration. At the same time, action has been taken in a second major direction, closely related to the first—namely, to strengthen the planning, administration, and delivery of manpower services. The difficulties in administration and coordination experienced during the past year and before underline the necessity for rapid progress in this direction.

IMPROVING NATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

The first major step toward better program administration was the reorganization of the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration announced in early 1969. The top administrative leadership was strengthened by the appointment of both an Assistant Secretary for Manpower and a Manpower Administrator (previously one individual carried both responsibilities). The reorganization further established a single direct line of administration from the Office of the Manpower Administrator to centralized regional offices, replacing the former multiple lines from Federal to regional and State offices.

The regional offices were given operating authority and responsibility for planning, funding, monitoring, and evaluating manpower programs administered by the Department. Only programs of the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training and the Veterans Employment Service remain outside their jurisdiction. It is expected that this decentralization of responsibility to the Regional Manpower Administrators, and the consolidation of all Manpower Administration field staff under their direction, will lead to significant improvements in program operations, with concomitant improvement in service to the public.

In another major step in the reorganization, duplication and overlapping authority were substantially reduced by creating a new U.S. Training and Employment Service, concerned with both the public employment service and work and training programs. The Bureau of Employment Security (BES), which had for years administered the Federal-State employment service system and the unemployment insurance program, was dissolved, leaving an autonomous Unemployment Insurance Service. The employment service part of BES was combined with the Bureau of Work-Training Programs, which had been created in 1966 to administer poverty-oriented manpower programs delegated to the Department of Labor.

The new U.S. Training and Employment Service is a staff organization. It does not operate programs. Rather, the national office provides staff support, through the regional offices, to State and local employment service offices and the private and public sponsors who operate federally assisted manpower programs.

STRENGTHENING THE MANPOWER PLANNING SYSTEM

Comprehensive manpower plans which take account of State and local needs are an essential element in meeting both short-term and long-range manpower goals. Special attention was therefore given during the year to strengthening the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS).

Established in 1967 through the voluntary efforts of five Federal agencies, CAMPS has grown to include eight agencies. It operates through a network of national, regional, State, and area comprehensive manpower planning committees. Currently, CAMPS area committees serve almost 500 communities throughout the country. The system is a mechanism for coordinating the resources of the Federal agencies most deeply involved in manpower activities with those of State and local agencies and planning for the deployment of these resources to meet manpower needs.

The planning system underwent a number of important changes in 1969 aimed at improving operations at all levels. The CAMPS National Manpower Coordinating Committee membership was upgraded to require participation by Assistant Secretaries; the Assistant Secretary for Manpower was appointed Chairman. As a result, the decisions of the Committee have a greater impact upon Federal manpower policies and operations.

Additional staff assistance for CAMPS has been provided in new units set up in both the national and regional offices. The regional staffs assist the Regional Manpower Administrators, who are chairmen of the regional CAMPS committees, in giving technical assistance to State and area committees, maintaining close coordination with regional offices of other Federal agencies, and providing general support services to the committees.

Another significant change in arrangements during 1969 was the offer of grants to Governors for funding State manpower planning staffs. Governors were also invited to use the State CAMPS committee staffs, which are financed through the State employment services. The additional staff thus provided to the Governors is to assist them in directing and supervising their States' manpower planning systems and in developing plans for creation of a comprehensive manpower agency in each State. If the proposed Manpower Training Act is approved by the Congress, these new manpower planning staffs will be invaluable in helping the Governors to carry out the planning responsibilities which will devolve upon them.

An agreement among the Federal agencies involved in CAMPS, reached during 1969, should alleviate a persistent difficulty for the area committees. This agreement provides for sending a notice to each affected area when a national training or research contract is to be let. It also requires contractors to notify area committees of their readiness to begin operations so that nationally funded projects with a substantial local impact can be a part of area CAMPS plans.

To further improve the quality of CAMPS planning, a decision was made to divide plans into two basic parts and to adjust the planning cycle to allow additional time for the preparation of each part. Part A of the CAMPS plan is now prepared in the late fall. Essentially, this part is a socioeconomic analysis of the State or area and an inventory of all public or private sources of manpower services and existing administrative and institutional arrangements in the manpower field. It also contains a statement of manpower needs, priorities, and target groups. Part B describes the range and size of the federally assisted manpower program resources for meeting local and State needs proposed in the President's budget. Since this part must await announcement of the President's budget, it is developed later in the planning cycle, beginning in the late winter or early spring. CAMPS committees overwhelmingly endorsed the two-part plan during fiscal 1969, the first year it was utilized.

Further coordination of manpower programs through CAMPS was facilitated by a 1968 amendment to the MDTA and an implementing order issued by the Department during 1969. The effect is to increase greatly the States' authority for approving training projects financed from the MDTA funds allocated to them. However, the projects approved must conform to an approved State CAMPS plan.

DELIVERING MANPOWER SERVICES

An important program emphasis during 1969 was on strengthening the delivery of manpower services in the local community. This was reflected in changes in the Concentrated Employment Program and in local employment service operations.

Concentrated Employment Program

The redesign of the Concentrated Employment Program during 1969 focused on clarifying the roles and responsibilities of the employment service and the Community Action Agencies. By 1969, the CEP had expanded from its initial 1967 base of 20 urban and 2 rural areas to 69 cities and 13 rural areas. The CEP concept of coordinated effort to provide, through a single local sponsor, a full range of manpower services in areas having the greatest concentrations of disadvantaged persons has proved to be useful. However, a series of evaluations revealed a number of widespread and serious deficiencies in CEP operations. A Manpower Administration order issued in July was designed to remedy these weaknesses and to restructure the CEP to conform more closely with established manpower policies.

The order directed the Regional Manpower Administrators to make the following major changes in the program and structure of the CEP:

—The responsibilities of the CEP prime sponsors (usually local CAA's) are clarified by directing them to concentrate on overall management of the program, and coordination of the services provided by subcontractors.

—The employment service agencies, under subcontracts with the prime sponsors, will be responsible for insuring the delivery of most manpower services provided to CEP enrollees.

—A single, integrated system of soliciting and locating jobs for all CEP enrollees will replace separate, and frequently competing, job development efforts for persons enrolled in different manpower programs.

—The CEP is to incorporate the concept, already successfully utilized in the WIN Program, of delivering, through a team effort, the services specified in an employability plan for each individual.

—A system for measuring CEP achievement on a current basis is to be developed and installed.

—In general, the role, relationships, and responsibilities of the CEP prime sponsor, the various CEP subcontractors, and cooperating community groups are to be clearly differentiated in order to avoid duplication and friction.

New Directions in Employment Service Operations

The public employment service made significant strides in 1969 in improving services offered to the poor and disadvantaged while maintaining its capabilities for serving the entire work force.

Extensive work was undertaken to modify and refine the Employability Development Model, which has become an important aspect of both the Work Incentive and Concentrated Employment Programs. The Employability Development Model represents a complete departure from traditional ways of providing services to disadvantaged persons. Under previous arrangements, manpower services—interviewing, testing, counseling, referral to training, and job placement—were available only separately and in a fixed sequence. A disadvantaged client was frequently shunted from one service to another until, finally, the last staff member contacted decided whether the client should go directly into skill training or be placed in a work-experience project or in competitive employment. The constant interruption of personal relationships with individual staff members created problems for many clients, causing some to drop out of programs. The fact that no single person was responsible for a client also diminished the effectiveness of services to him.

The new model calls for a team approach in providing employability development services to the disadvantaged; experimental findings have shown this to be the most effective method. Teams usually have four to seven staff members, representing the following disciplines—counseling, job development, work and training, and coaching. Each team also has appropriate clerical support.

The team members are concerned with all the vocationally related problems of each applicant. All members become well acquainted with the applicant and gain his confidence. The service provided is intensive, tailored to individual needs, and offered on a continuing basis from the time the applicant is enrolled until he is not only employed but adjusted to the world of work. In view of the intensive nature of the services, caseloads must be limited (100 to 175 applicants being served by each team at any one time).

Another recent advance of quite a different sort is in the application of computer technology to local employment office operations. A prime example is the Baltimore Job Bank established in May 1968. This is a computerized system for centralizing and disseminating job-order information. By compiling and distributing daily all job orders received by Baltimore local offices, the job bank gives all employment service personnel, as well as the staffs of other agencies serving the disadvantaged, equal knowledge of the job opportunities to which their applicants may be referred. At the same time, referrals to openings are controlled to prevent duplication and wasted effort. Before any job bank user makes a referral, he must call the Job Order Control Unit for permission—which will, of course, be denied if the job has been filled or if the employer's referral limit has been met.

In Baltimore, the job bank has been responsible for a vast increase in the daily volume of job orders filed with the employment service and for more than a doubling of job placements for the disadvantaged. Moreover, it has ended employer complaints about multiple solicitation for jobs and overreferrals of job applicants by several agencies.

Computer-assisted job banks are expected to be in operation in 54 metropolitan areas by the end of fiscal 1970. An additional 22 job banks are to be established by the end of the 1970 calendar year.

The job banks are seen as the first stage in a computer-assisted matching system which will bring jobseekers and employment opportunities together. Experimental job matching systems are currently being tested in three States—Utah, Wisconsin, and New York.

A computerized job matching system can help greatly in improving employment service operations. For example, the system can be programed, as it is in Utah, to find out quickly why certain applicants are repeatedly referred to jobs and not hired. It may thus trigger a reexamination of the need for particular kinds of training or other job preparation for applicants or even reveal staff deficiencies.

The long-term goal of a community Job Market Information Center, stressing self-help and self-direction for those who are job ready, can be fully achieved only if there is a computerized job bank. Besides providing job order information, the computer could assist in integrating local information on employment, unemployment, labor turnover, job vacancies, and other labor market factors available through cooperative relationships with the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Early results of these experiments in computer operations raise the possibility that local public employment offices can indeed become a source of comprehensive current data for the job markets they serve.

The job banks are also the key to a new system for delivering employment services to applicants, which was developed in 1969 and is to be tested in 10 large metropolitan offices in fiscal 1970. The new system will provide services to applicants at three levels, geared to the individuals' differing needs:

—Job-ready applicants receive the *first* level of service. This includes assistance in selecting suitable job openings from an inventory of job opportunities. Individuals will be expected to make these selections largely on a self-help basis, however.

—Applicants who are job ready but have special problems (owing, for example, to their race, age, physical handicaps, or the particular kinds of jobs in which they are interested) receive an *intermediate* level of service. This includes interviewing, vocational counseling, aptitude or proficiency testing, and job development, as appropriate. In this group, as in the first one, applicants will have considerable responsibility for helping themselves and making decisions about the services they need.

—Disadvantaged applicants receive the *third* level of service—the indepth services provided for in the Employability Development Model.

The Proposed Manpower Training Act

Dissatisfaction with the fragmentation and complexity of the Nation's manpower programs became evident as early as 1967, and a number of efforts to simplify and coordinate planning and administration were undertaken. This Administration gave them new vigor and direction in ways that have just been described. Despite this, a consensus has developed that the Federal Government cannot effectively operate the diverse manpower programs which are required to meet vastly differing needs in communities across the Nation.

On the basis of a careful review of the total manpower effort, the Administration concluded that a complete overhaul was necessary. Accordingly, the proposed Manpower Training Act was developed as the vehicle for the urgently needed new approach to manpower policy and programs.

In referring to this act, which was sent to the Congress in August,[12] President Nixon stated that:

> . . . This recommendation represents the beginning of a revitalized federalism, the gradual transfer of greater power and responsibility for the making of government decisions to governments closest to the people.

Following are the essential principles of the "New Federalism"—the term the President has used to describe his Administration's approach to government reform—as incorporated in the proposed Manpower Training Act:

> —A fundamental reordering of Federal-State-local relationships is a prerequisite to progress in the manpower field. A new balance has to be struck in the responsibilities assigned to each member in the three-way partnership. The role each partner will play should be determined by actual performance rather than by a preconceived, rigid statement of agreement.
>
> —To the maximum extent possible, authority is to be placed at the level of government closest to the citizens to be served.
>
> —In particular, primary reliance is to be placed on the elected heads of State and local governments for decisions on the allocation of manpower program resources.
>
> —Federal assistance is to be provided in a flexible form, so that State and local planners and administrators can mount programs tailormade to the needs of their constituents.
>
> —A maximum effort is to be made to simplify administration and to develop measures of success and failure related to improvement of an individual's welfare, rather than to the number of transactions in which he has participated.
>
> —Manpower policies have become inextricably related to almost every aspect of social, economic, and political policy. As a consequence, policies in these areas must be developed in concert.[13]

The proposed Manpower Training Act would create a comprehensive nationwide manpower services system, which would include State and local public employment services. Under this system, each Governor would appoint a State manpower planning council to assess manpower needs and integrate the plans for meeting them developed by the various agencies concerned. A State manpower agency would also be established to administer the basic manpower program. Each major metropolitan area would be guaranteed a minimum share of the resources provided to the State, in proportion to its share of the State's disadvantaged population. This would result in an equitable distribution of resources among rural as well as urban areas.

The Secretary of Labor would provide guidelines and national priorities, review and approve annual State plans, and evaluate performance of State and area manpower systems, subject to the concurrence of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare concerning programs traditionally in his area of responsibility.

Here, then, is the "New Federalism"—a Federal-State-local relationship knitting together all the appropriate manpower services. The President sees in it an end to such unwarranted situations as the following:

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[12] The administration bill was introduced in the House of Representatives (HR 13472) by Representative William Ayres and in the Senate (S 2838) by Senator Jacob Javits. Two other bills with essentially the same objective had been introduced in the House earlier in the session, the Comprehensive Manpower Act (HR 10908) by Representative William Steiger and the Manpower Act (HR 11620) by Representative James O'Hara.

[13] As a tangible expression of the Administration's commitment to this principle, careful attention was given to the drafting of reciprocal language in both the MTA and the proposed Family Assistance Act to insure that the manpower component of the welfare bill is integrally linked with the manpower services delivery system proposed in the MTA.

> A jobless man goes to the local skill training center to seek help. He has the aptitudes for training in blue collar mechanical work, but no suitable training opportunities are available. At the same time, vacancies exist in a white collar New Careers project and in the Neighborhood Youth Corps. But the resources of these programs cannot be turned over to the training program that has the most local demand.[14]

Key features of the proposed act are:

—*Individual Services.* Persons 16 years of age or older who are unemployed, underemployed, or in a low-income status would be eligible for a variety of services—basic education, literacy and communications skill training, testing and work evaluation, preapprenticeship and occupational training, prevocational training, supportive health services, child day care, and relocation assistance, as needed. Others could participate if the Secretary of Labor found that this would improve utilization of the Nation's manpower resources. Each participant would have an employability development plan tailored to his needs.

—*State Authority and Responsibility.* Each State would be required to establish a comprehensive manpower agency, in order to secure administrative control over the manpower funds to be spent in the State (as discussed below under *State Apportionment*). The comprehensive agency would include the following State agencies: The employment service; the unemployment compensation agency; and all agencies responsible for the administration of programs authorized by the act and of any other State-supported manpower programs. Vocational education and rehabilitation agencies could be included when requested by the State, as could other related agencies. An existing "lead" agency experienced in administering manpower programs could be designated by the Governor by agreement with the Secretary to administer a portion of the State's share of funds, pending the development of a comprehensive agency.

Each State would be required to establish a manpower planning organization with broad representation as another condition for obtaining administrative control over funds. Specifically, this organization would include representatives of: (1) State agencies for manpower training, employment, apprenticeship, general and vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, welfare, industrial development, labor, economic opportunity, and human resources; (2) local manpower training and employment programs; (3) typical client groups; and (4) the general public. Each year, the State planning organization would submit consolidated State plans, looking ahead several years, for approval by the Department of Labor and by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare for areas traditionally under that Department's jurisdiction.

Each Governor would designate prime sponsors to administer manpower programs in major metropolitan and other appropriate areas—either the elected executive of the central city or an organization chosen by the elected heads of local governments representing 75 percent of the area's population. Local prime sponsors would prepare area plans for inclusion in State plans.

—*Three-Stage Decentralization.* A single, flexible grant, instead of the many separate grants-in-aid now available, would be turned over to each State to administer—in steps, as specified conditions are met:

☐ 25 percent when the State names a "lead" agency and develops an approved manpower plan;

☐ 66⅔ percent when the State adds a comprehensive manpower agency to operate the unified programs and fulfills other requirements;

☐ 100 percent when a State meets objective standards of exemplary performance.

When a State does not meet the conditions set by the act for receiving a single grant, or is in only partial compliance, the Federal government would arrange directly for the operation of all or part of the programs in that State.

—*Allowances and Wages.* The basic allowance to manpower trainees would be a percentage of average weekly pay in jobs covered by the State's unemployment compensation law—40 percent in fiscal 1971, 45 percent in 1972, and 50 percent from 1973 onward. Family allowances would be $5 per dependent per week (up to a maximum of six dependents). Welfare recipients would continue to receive benefits, plus an extra incentive payment of $30 per month while in training.

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[14] Manpower Message of the President to the Congress, August 1969.

Upon successful completion of an authorized training course lasting at least 15 weeks, trainees would receive a lump-sum incentive payment of twice their weekly allowance.

Work-experience trainees would be paid at least the Federal minimum wage; in employer-compensated on-the-job training, they would be paid the applicable minimum wage or the prevailing wage, whichever is higher.

—*State Apportionment.* The Secretary of Labor would apportion among the States at least 75 percent of the basic appropriation. This apportionment would be in accordance with criteria to be published by the Secretary, with a guaranteed minimum "pass-through" to metropolitan areas. States and areas would have to provide $1 in cash or in kind for each $9 in Federal funds, unless this matching requirement is waived by the Secretary in special circumstances.

Another 5 percent of Federal funds would go into an incentive pool for States or local areas making "supplementary" efforts; that is, already carrying out exemplary programs and prepared to allocate new State funds for manpower activity. Here, the matching requirement is one State to each two Federal dollars.

—*Complementary Manpower Programs.* Manpower research and experimental and demonstration programs would be authorized, along with comprehensive labor market information open to private as well as government users. Also provided for are a new manpower utilization program designed to ease labor shortages; program evaluation; staff training; and technical assistance. Twenty percent of the basic appropriation would be reserved for the Secretary of Labor to finance these activities, national projects, and Federal administration.

A computerized job bank to match jobs and workers would be established in each State, or on a regional basis for sparsely populated States. The job banks would have to be compatible; the Department of Labor would operate interstate phases of the total system.

—*Economic Stabilizer Feature.* During any fiscal year in which national unemployment reaches 4.5 percent for 3 consecutive months, an additional sum equal to 10 percent of the amount appropriated would be triggered for use in manpower programs. If unemployment again dropped below 4.5 percent during that year, any triggered funds remaining would be returned to the Treasury.

—*Advisory Bodies.* The National Manpower Advisory Committee would be reconstituted and a new Intergovernmental Advisory Council on Manpower, composed of representative Governors and local elected officials, would be established to advise the Secretary on Federal-State-local relations under this act.

—*Effect on Other Legislation.* The Manpower Development and Training Act and title V–A of the Economic Opportunity Act (authorizing work experience and training) would be repealed. The activities authorized by this legislation, together with those provided for by title I–B of the EOA, would be incorporated in the MTA. Title 1–A of the EOA would be transferred to the MTA—placing the Job Corps under the Department of Labor, where it now is by delegation from the Office of Economic Opportunity. A new EOA title I–B would authorize an OEO program of research and experimental and demonstration activities on the employment and employment-related problems of the poor.

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TOWARD EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

TOWARD EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

Equal employment opportunity is the primary goal of the Nation's manpower programs. By aiding disadvantaged workers—many of them members of minority groups—to qualify for and find productive jobs, these programs help to overcome the barriers that impede economic and employment progress for Negroes and other minorities, as well as for the even larger numbers of poor people among the white majority.

In addition, a number of programs aimed specifically at overcoming discrimination in employment have been set up. The legal framework for these programs was established by the Civil Rights Act of 1964, related legislation, and Executive orders, which forbid discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, sex, age, religion, or national origin.

As efforts to implement equal opportunity have proceeded, the complexity and the interaction of the many forms of discrimination and segregation have become increasingly evident. In seeking a satisfactory job, a minority group member may be handicapped as much by discrimination in education and training earlier in his life as by present bias in hiring and promotion. Furthermore, people in city ghettos and poor rural areas may be unable to reach the areas of expanding employment opportunity, often located in city suburbs. There are also pervasive psychological barriers created by discrimination and segregation, which have to be overcome before minority group members can compete on an equal basis for jobs and promotions. The manpower programs discussed in the preceding chapter are aimed at attacking these problems.

This chapter is concerned with the progress that has been made, and the great deficiencies that still remain, in moving toward equal employment opportunity for Negroes and other minorities. It assesses the record with respect to their employment and unemployment, occupational levels, education, and income. Recent administrative and legal action to end or prevent discrimination in hiring, especially in work on Federal contracts, is also discussed. Whatever the index of social and economic conditions used, the record tells of recent gains offset by continuing intolerable inequalities between the country's ethnic minorities and the white majority.

The chapter also includes a brief discussion of the legislative protections of equal opportunity for two other groups that suffer from employment discrimination—women and older workers. It concludes with a discussion of equal opportunity in government employment—Federal and State and local.

In its every aspect, the record outlined in this chapter underlines a central conclusion already suggested—that proscription of employment discrimination, though essential, is only one weapon among many kinds of positive action needed, on a much enlarged scale, to make equal employment opportunity a reality for this country's minority groups.

Negroes

The employment situation of the country's largest minority group—more than 22 million Negroes—has both positive and negative aspects. According to a member of the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, himself a member of this group:

> So far in the decade of the 1960's, Negroes have benefited relatively more than the population as a whole from the vigorous expansion of the national economy. . . . Increased occupational mobility and significant strides in education have also played vital roles. . . . Looking ahead over the next decade, the Negro community as a whole can be expected to improve its economic position to a greater extent than the population generally.[1]

Yet "there is scarcely an aspect of . . . educational and labor market experience . . . in which pronounced differences between whites and blacks do not exist," and these differences are invariably to the advantage of the whites, whether they are in rates of unemployment, occupational levels, education, or rates of pay.[2]

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Employment gains by Negroes have been more rapid than those by white workers over the past 8 years. Aided by the heavy demand for manpower during these years of economic expansion, Negroes increased their employment by 1.6 million or 23 percent between 1961 and 1969.[3] In contrast, employment of white workers rose by only 8 percent over these 8 years, although in absolute numbers the increase in their employment was, of course, much larger than that for black workers.

Negro men, women, and teenagers all experienced some gains in job opportunities. The employment rise for Negro men was much faster than that for white men between 1961 and 1969 (16 percent compared with 9 percent). However, the employment gains by Negro women merely kept pace with those of white women. And though Negro as well as white teenagers had sharp employment increases, their job gains were barely large enough to take care of the greatly increased number seeking employment and so had little impact on their extremely high unemployment rate.

The average unemployment rate for all Negro workers was reduced by nearly one-half (from 12.4 to 6.4 percent) between 1961 and 1969, reflecting the gains in Negro employment during this period. Here again, the improvement was most marked for Negro men, whose unemployment rate was cut by two-thirds. Among Negro women workers, the reduction in unemployment was smaller, and among teenage girls it was insignificant. The gap in unemployment rates between Negro and white youth actually widened over the 8 years, since unemployment among white teenagers was reduced substantially during this period. (See table 1.)

Unemployment of Negroes, as of white workers, reached its lowest point since the Korean conflict in early 1969, after that rose slightly, and then

TABLE 1. UNEMPLOYMENT RATES FOR ADULTS AND TEENAGERS, BY COLOR, 1961 AND 1969

Color, sex, and age	1961	1969	Percent change, 1961–69
White	6. 0	3. 1	−48. 3
Men, 20 years and over	5. 1	1. 9	−62. 7
Women, 20 years and over	5. 7	3. 4	−40. 4
Teenagers, 16 to 19 years	15. 3	10. 7	−30. 1
Boys	15. 7	10. 1	−35. 7
Girls	14. 8	11. 5	−22. 3
Negro and other races	12. 4	6. 4	−48. 4
Men, 20 years and over	11. 7	3. 7	−68. 4
Women, 20 years and over	10. 6	5. 8	−45. 3
Teenagers, 16 to 19 years	27. 6	24. 0	−13. 0
Boys	26. 8	21. 3	−20. 5
Girls	29. 2	27. 7	−5. 1

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[1] Address by Andrew F. Brimmer at Tennessee A. and I. State University, Nashville, Tenn., June 8, 1969.

[2] Herbert S. Parnes, Robert C. Miljus, Ruth S. Spitz, and others, *Career Thresholds: A Longitudinal Study of the Education and Labor Market Experience of Male Youth 14–24 Years of Age* (Columbus, Ohio: Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University, February 1969), vol. I, pp. 189–190. (While this study refers only to the experiences of young men, other studies by the same authors indicate that the situation of older men is identical.)

[3] Figures for Negroes and other minority races, of which Negroes represent about 92 percent, are used to indicate developments in employment, unemployment, occupations, and income cited for Negroes in this section. The data on educational gains, however, refer to Negroes only.

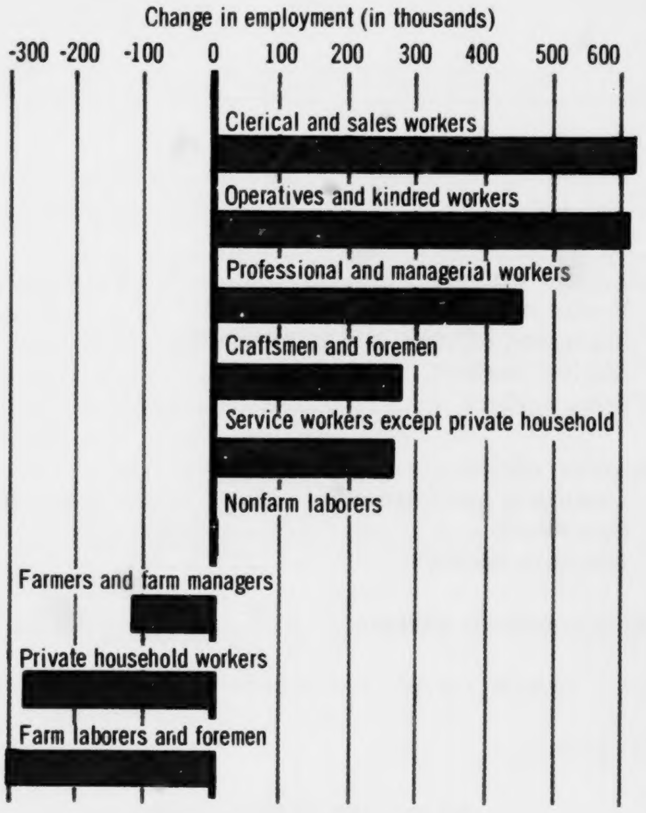
dropped again late in the year (as described in a preceding chapter).[4] These developments were reason for cautious satisfaction. In earlier periods, any increase in unemployment has tended to bring a disproportionate rise in joblessness among Negro workers—many of whom are unskilled and are among the "last hired" and thus, under common personnel practice, liable to be the "first fired." It has been widely feared that even a small overall increase in unemployment might once again entail a much larger rise in the rate of joblessness among Negroes, but the upcreep in unemployment rates during the summer and early autumn of 1969 applied equally to white and Negro workers.

OCCUPATIONAL ADVANCES

The most encouraging aspect of the employment record for Negroes is their rapid movement into higher level occupations. More than three-fifths of the increase in Negro employment between 1961 and 1969 was in professional, other white-collar, and skilled occupations. There was also a large rise in the number of Negroes in operative jobs. By contrast, in the lowest paid occupations—private household work and farmwork—Negro employment declined substantially, while the number in nonfarm laborer jobs remained virtually unchanged. (See chart 15.)

CHART 15

Negro workers moved into better jobs between 1961 and 1969.



Note: Includes small numbers of members of other races.

Source: Department of Labor.

The breakthrough of Negroes into white-collar occupations not only continued but probably accelerated during 1969. In professional and technical occupations, the number of Negro workers increased by 8 percent from 1968 to 1969—double the rate of increase (4 percent) for white workers.[5] In clerical occupations, the rise in Negro employment reached 12 percent, which was three times the increase for whites. Even in managerial occupations, where the proportion of Negro workers has remained very low, there was evidence of progress—a gain of 13 percent in their employment, as compared with only 2 percent in that of white workers. In sales occupations, however, Negroes made less headway (as shown in table 2). And despite the increasing numbers of Negroes employed in white-collar occupations, their proportionate share in such jobs has remained essentially unchanged.

The employment record in blue-collar occupations is moderately encouraging. The number of Negro craftsmen and foremen rose by 8 percent over the year, while employment of white craftsmen increased by only 1.3 percent. In operative positions, Negro and white employment increased at about the same rate (3 to 4 percent). And in nonfarm laboring jobs, at the bottom of the blue-collar scale, employment of Negroes showed practically no change, while the number of white laborers rose slightly. In addition, the exodus of Negroes from private household and farm jobs continued during the year, at a faster rate than among white workers.

The occupational upgrading of Negro workers indicated by these figures has already given mil-

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[4] See the chapter on The Employment and Unemployment Record.

[5] For a discussion of the important recent gains in Negro professional employment, see the chapter on Manpower Demand and Supply in Professional Occupations.

TABLE 2. EMPLOYED PERSONS 16 YEARS AND OVER, BY COLOR AND OCCUPATION GROUP, 1968–69

[Numbers in thousands]

Color and occupation group	1968		1969		Percent change, 1968–69
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	
WHITE					
Total	67, 751	100. 0	69, 518	100. 0	2. 6
White-collar workers	33, 561	49. 5	34, 647	49. 8	3. 2
Professional and technical workers	9, 685	14. 3	10, 074	14. 5	4. 0
Managers, officials, and proprietors	7, 551	11. 1	7, 733	11. 1	2. 4
Clerical workers	11, 836	17. 5	12, 314	17. 7	4. 0
Sales workers	4, 489	6. 6	4, 527	6. 5	. 8
Blue-collar workers	24, 063	35. 5	24, 647	35. 5	2. 4
Craftsmen and foremen	9, 359	13. 8	9, 484	13. 6	1. 3
Operatives	12, 023	17. 7	12, 368	17. 8	2. 9
Nonfarm laborers	2, 681	4. 0	2, 795	4. 0	4. 3
Private household workers	947	1. 4	917	1. 3	−3. 2
Service workers, except private household	6, 118	9. 0	6, 372	9. 2	4. 2
Farmworkers	3, 062	4. 5	2, 935	4. 2	−4. 1
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES					
Total	8, 169	100. 0	8, 384	100. 0	2. 6
White-collar workers	1, 991	24. 4	2, 197	26. 2	10. 3
Professional and technical workers	641	7. 8	695	8. 3	8. 4
Managers, officials, and proprietors	225	2. 8	254	3. 0	12. 9
Clerical workers	967	11. 8	1, 083	12. 9	12. 0
Sales workers	158	1. 9	166	2. 0	5. 2
Blue-collar workers	3, 462	42. 4	3, 591	42. 8	3. 7
Craftsmen and foremen	656	8. 0	709	8. 5	8. 1
Operatives	1, 932	23. 6	2, 004	23. 9	3. 7
Nonfarm laborers	874	10. 7	877	10. 5	. 3
Private household workers	777	9. 5	714	8. 5	−8. 1
Service workers, except private household	1, 538	18. 8	1, 525	18. 2	−. 8
Farmworkers	403	4. 9	356	4. 2	−11. 7

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

lions of people—workers and their families—a larger share in the national prosperity. This upgrading also testifies to the greatly improved climate of opportunity for Negroes in many fields of public and private employment and so offers hope of continued rapid progress.

It must be emphasized, however, that occupational parity for Negroes has not been reached or even approached as yet. Though the gains by Negro workers have been substantial, especially in professional, clerical, and skilled occupations, they are still seriously underrepresented in these and other relatively high status, highly paid occupations and disproportionately concentrated in unskilled, low-paid laboring and service jobs.

To some extent, these differences reflect educational deficiencies and lack of skill. However, other factors such as inadequate knowledge of better job opportunities and racial discrimination also account for the disparity in employment of Negroes. For example, if at each level of education Negro men had the same opportunities for jobs as whites, the proportion of Negro craftsmen would double, and the percentage of managers and proprietors would triple. On the other hand, the percentage of Negro men in service jobs would decline by half, and the proportion of nonfarm laborers would be cut by two-thirds. For Negro men in professional and technical jobs, the proportion would remain about the same.[6]

EDUCATIONAL GAINS

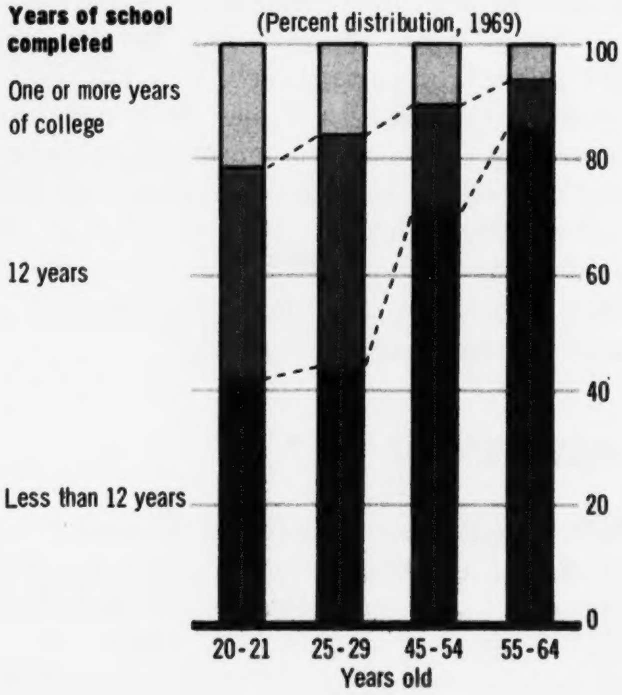
Rising levels of education among Negroes were, nevertheless, indispensable to their recent occupational progress, and larger educational gains will be essential to enable greater numbers to enter white-collar and skilled jobs.

The higher educational attainment of young adult Negroes than of middle-aged and older ones is an index of the substantial advances in their schooling during recent decades. According to 1969 data, nearly 3 out of every 5 Negroes 25 to 29 years of age have completed high school, almost twice the proportion among those aged 45 to 54 and four times that for the 55- to 64-year-old group. (See chart 16.) College education is also much more common among younger than older Negroes, though still achieved by only a small minority. A little over 20 percent of those aged 20 and 21 have completed 1 or more years of college, but in the older age groups the proportion drops progressively (to only 6 percent in the 55- to 64-year-old group). Even these limited gains in college education of Negroes have been important in opening opportunities for them in professional and administrative positions.[7]

The heavy farm-to-city migration of Negroes since World War II has been one of the main reasons for their more extended schooling. They have also been helped and encouraged to stay in school longer by federally aided programs designed to improve the schools, especially in poor school districts, and to reduce dropout rates. However, accomplishments in these directions fall far short of those needed.

CHART 16

Negro young adults are better educated than older Negroes.



Source: Department of Labor, based on data from the Department of Commerce.

The disparity in education between Negroes and whites is narrowing but remains wide even among young people. This is indicated by 1969 data on the proportions of people in different age groups who have completed 4 years of high school (including those with 1 or more years of college education):

Age group	*Percent*		*Negro to white ratio (in percent)*
	White	*Negro*	
20 to 21 years	82	58	71
22 to 24 years	81	56	69
25 to 29 years	77	56	73
30 to 34 years	73	50	68
35 to 44 years	66	37	56
45 to 54 years	59	29	49
55 to 64 years	45	15	33

SOURCE: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

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[6] Harvey R. Hamel, "Educational Attainment of Workers," *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1968, p. 33, table 3.

[7] For a discussion of recent progress in professional employment and higher education of Negroes, see the chapter on Manpower Demand and Supply in Professional Occupations.

Furthermore, educational attainment, as measured by years of schooling, gives no indication of the great differences in the quality of schooling, as measured by achievement tests. A 1965 survey showed that, in the 12th grade, the average Negro youth scores at a ninth-grade level, 3 year's behind the average white youth.[8] The gap in school achievement is apparent early and broadens between the sixth and 12th grades. Since comparable data are not available for more recent years, the extent of progress since 1965 in improving educational quality—through the aid to poor school districts provided under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and other remedial programs—cannot be assessed as yet.

FAMILY INCOME

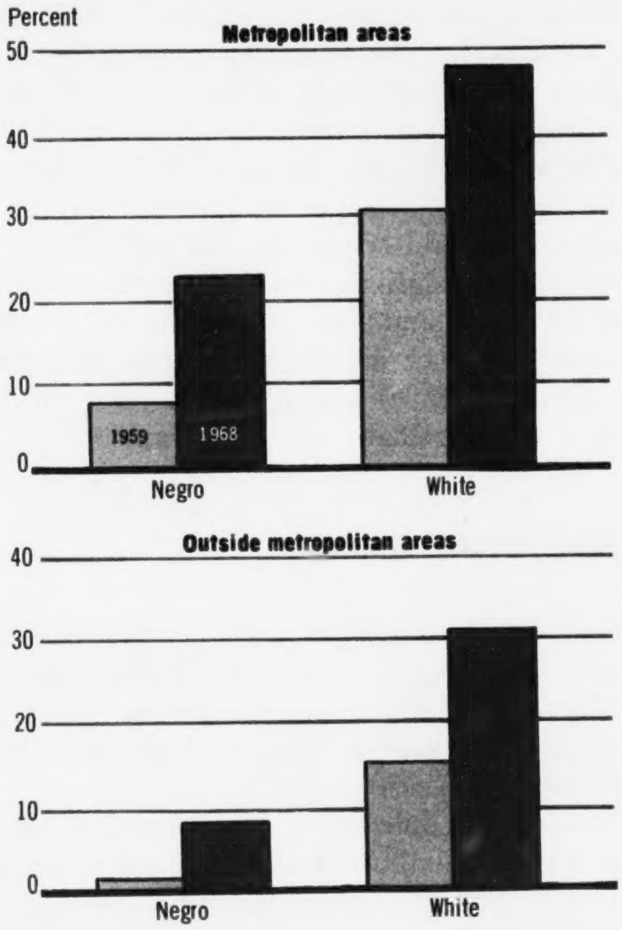
Reflecting the generally favorable trends in their employment and occupations, the average income of Negroes has risen substantially. Their median family income was nearly $5,600 in 1968, compared with about $4,400 in 1965 (in constant 1968 dollars, adjusted for price increases). This represented a gain in real income of nearly 30 percent in only 3 years and an acceleration over the preceding period. Six years, 1959 to 1965, were previously required for an advance of similar magnitude.

The number and percent of Negroes moving into middle income groups have also increased sharply. Of the 3.3 million Negro families in metropolitan areas in 1968, nearly one-fourth (23 percent) had incomes of $10,000 or more—triple the proportion in 1959. For the 1.3 million Negro families outside these areas, however, incomes as high as this are rare indeed (reported by only 8 percent in 1968). (See chart 17.)

The Negro-white differential in the proportion of families with incomes of $10,000 or more was about twofold in metropolitan areas in 1968. This represented a substantial improvement since 1959, when the proportion of families at this income level was about four times higher for whites than for Negroes. The differential in family income would be still wider if the average number of wage earners were no larger in Negro than white families. To a far greater extent than white families, Negro households depend on the earnings of one or more workers besides the family head.

CHART 17

Proportion of Negro families with income of over $10,000 has risen but is still far less than for whites.



Source: Department of Labor, based on data from the Department of Commerce.

Negro families at all income levels have shared in the recent income gains. In fact, in relative terms the income rise has been most rapid for those at the bottom of the income scale. But the dollar rise in incomes has been much greater for the higher income group. This is shown in table 3, which gives the median incomes for families in each fifth of the income scale (in constant 1968 dollars).

In 1968, the median income for Negro families in the lowest fifth was only $1,723, far below the poverty threshold, though more than double the median for this group in 1959. In contrast, the 1968 median income for the highest fifth was a comfortable $13,000, up by slightly more than 50 percent above the corresponding 1959 figure of $8,483.

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[8] James S. Coleman, *Equality of Educational Opportunity* (Washington: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, 1966), p. 21.

Table 3. Distribution of Family Income, by Color, 1959 and 1968

[Numbers in constant 1968 dollars]

Quintile	White			Negro and other races			White-Negro income difference	
	Median income		Percent change, 1959–68	Median income		Percent change, 1959–68		
	1959	1968		1959	1968		1959	1968
Lowest fifth	$2,199	$3,196	45.3	$856	$1,723	101.3	$1,343	$1,473
Second fifth	4,806	6,447	34.1	1,999	3,564	78.3	2,807	2,883
Middle fifth (overall median)	6,742	8,937	32.6	3,482	5,591	60.6	3,260	3,346
Fourth fifth	8,801	11,789	34.0	5,263	8,283	57.4	3,538	3,506
Highest fifth	13,031	19,341	48.4	8,483	13,000	53.2	4,548	6,341

Source: Based on data from the Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-60.

Similarly, Negro families have had more rapid percentage gains in income than white families, but this has not been true in terms of purchasing power. The dollar difference in median incomes between white and Negro families in the bottom fifth of the income scale was nearly $1,500 in 1968, compared with about $1,350 in 1959. For families in the highest fifth in income the difference was over $6,300 in 1968, though it had been about $4,500 (in constant 1968 dollars) 9 years before. In the middle-income groups, the differential in dollar income between Negro and white families showed little change; the absolute difference in their purchasing power remains wide.

A complex of economic, educational, and other factors—including discrimination in hiring and promotion—have undoubtedly contributed to these income disparities. The various operative factors have not yet been clearly identified, however. There is evident need for further assessment of them—as a basis for public and private action to narrow Negro-white income differences.

LEGISLATIVE AND ADMINISTRATIVE ACTION

Government efforts to break discriminatory barriers in employment have to deal not only with deliberate discrimination in hiring and promotions but also with "systemic discrimination," built into the structure and practices of the organizations involved. Discrimination of this latter kind includes, for example, unrealistic requirements in selecting workers for jobs or training, reliance on word-of-mouth and other informal methods of recruitment to which minorities have little access, and "locking" people in departments with limited opportunities for advancement and training. Purposive discrimination in hiring and work assignments is but "the tip of the iceberg" and actually much easier to overcome. The legislative and administrative efforts of the Federal Government to assure equality of employment opportunity are directed against discrimination in all its forms.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) was established by the Civil Rights Act of 1964 with authority to investigate and conciliate charges of discrimination by employers, employment agencies, unions, or sponsors of apprenticeship or other job training programs.[9]

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[9] Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which established the EEOC, applies to employers and unions in industries affecting interstate commerce, to public and private employment agencies serving such employers, and to joint labor-management apprenticeship programs. Employers are forbidden to discriminate not only in hiring and discharging but also with respect to wages, working conditions, promotional opportunities, and training. Unions are banned from discrimination in membership and job referrals. These provisions now apply to employers of 25 or more workers and unions with 25 or more members and so cover most workers in the private economy.

Although these provisions are discussed in detail in this section on Negroes, they of course apply to other ethnic minority groups as well.

The EEOC may initiate action on its own through public hearings, conferences, and other promotional efforts. Through such forums, public attention is focused on minority employment patterns. Followup hearings are held to determine whether employers have taken affirmative action to end discrimination. In addition, cases may be referred, when appropriate, to other agencies with enforcement powers (notably, the Office of Federal Contract Compliance) or to the Justice Department for possible suit, or the complainant may himself bring suit.

In fiscal year 1968 the EEOC completed more than 3,500 investigations and 640 conciliations. Nearly 29,000 persons, 70 percent of whom were Negroes, benefited directly from these conciliations.[10]

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's first public hearing was held in Charlotte, N.C., in January 1967, to discuss Negro employment patterns in the textile industry. This hearing, coupled with generally favorable labor market conditions, led to significantly increased Negro employment in that industry in the Carolinas.

The proportion of Negroes in the industry's work force increased from 9 percent in 1966 to 13 percent in 1968. This 53-percent rise in employment of Negroes compared with an increase of only 4 percent in total employment in these States' textile mills. Employment of Negro women more than doubled, compared with an overall increase of only 8 percent in women employees.

Negro advancement in white-collar positions was nominal, however. Less than 1 out of 40 Negroes hired by the industry between 1966 and 1968 entered a white-collar job, compared to more than half of all new workers taken on.

The conferences also held in the drug industry and the following gains in Negro employment provide another example of what these procedures may accomplish. After an initial meeting with industry representatives, the technical assistance staff of the EEOC, together with Food and Drug Administration personnel, reviewed the companies' recruitment, hiring, testing, and promotion procedures with their officials. This review resulted in a variety of positive action programs in the industry. By July 1968, less than a year after the initial meeting, 22 of the 32 largest drug firms in the country had submitted progress reports. Both Negro and Spanish American employment had increased in all companies, including four in which total employment had fallen. Even with this increase, however, Negroes represented only a small proportion of the drug industry's total work force; they held only 3 percent of the white-collar jobs.

Action to achieve equal employment in the television, radio, motion picture, aerospace, banking, and insurance industries of Los Angeles was taken by the EEOC through public hearings in March 1969. At the end of the 3-day hearings, the EEOC Chairman concluded that "blacks, Spanish Americans, and women are barred from employment or held to the lower paying jobs in the area's major industries." Negroes and Spanish Americans make up some 20 percent of the population of Los Angeles, but in the radio and television industry only 2.9 percent of the employees were Negro and 1.6 Spanish American.

Pointing out that motion pictures play a "critical role in influencing public opinion," the Chairman of the EEOC recommended, with the concurrence of the Commission, the first industrywide suit by the U.S. Department of Justice against virtually the entire motion picture and television film industries and their craft unions. Late in 1969, these industries began talks with the EEOC on the actions necessary to avert a lawsuit.

Equal Opportunity in Manpower Programs

Discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin is specifically prohibited in programs receiving Federal financial assistance under title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This title directs the concerned Federal agencies to issue regulations designed to carry out its requirements and to insure compliance. The Office of Equal Employment Opportunity is the agency of the Department of Labor responsible for effecting compliance in the Department's manpower programs.

The Federal-State employment service system, with its more than 2,200 offices throughout the

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[10] Many persons who are discriminated against do not file complaints because of fear of retaliation. Unless a charge has been filed, the Commission has no power to make investigations to assure that the law is being complied with. However, in addition to individual complaints of discrimination, the EEOC may also handle individual Commissioner charges.

Bills designed to strengthen the EEOC were introduced into the Congress during 1969. The bill supported by the Administration would give the Commission authority to seek court orders against employers it believes are practicing discrimination; another would give it cease and desist powers. Committee hearings on both proposals were scheduled as of late 1969.

United States, affects far larger numbers of people than any individual manpower program. Since the Office of Equal Employment Opportunity began making compliance reviews of local office operations and investigating complaints, much progress has been made in eliminating discriminatory practices. The main effort is to bring about voluntary compliance through negotiation. However, if this approach is not effective, litigation may be used; so far only one State is facing litigation.

The directions of positive action taken by State employment service agencies include:

—State agencies are requiring local offices to assign occupational classifications to job applicants and refer them to jobs on a nondiscriminatory basis.

—Services to employers who discriminate in hiring have been discontinued.

—Communication with the minority community regarding job and training opportunities has improved across the country.

—Training sessions on equal opportunity legislation and regulations have been conducted for employment service staff.

Such efforts have helped many minority group members to gain employment and entrance into training programs. In addition, the State agencies have expanded the proportion of minority workers on their own staffs—from 12 percent in 1967 to 14 percent in 1969. Between 1968 and 1969, the rise in minority employment accounted for three-fourths of the increase in State agency employment, with most of the gain in clerical-office and professional-technical positions.

The State employment services are federally funded and subject to Federal merit system standards, which prohibit discrimination. Increased minority staffing also helps the agencies to better serve those who most need training and job placement.

Equal Opportunity in Work on Government Contracts

Assurance of equal opportunity in work on Government contracts is the objective of a series of six Executive orders dating back to the early 1940's. Executive Order 11246, issued in 1965, prohibits discrimination because of race, creed, sex, color, or national origin, by any contractor or subcontractor with a contract of $10,000 or more. Since nearly one-third of all employment in this country is with Government contractors, the potential impact of this order is great. Inadequate staffing of compliance agencies has limited its effectiveness in the past, but efforts are underway to remedy these and other weaknesses in enforcement.

The Office of Federal Contract Compliance (OFCC) in the Department of Labor is responsible for supervising compliance activities, which the contracting agencies carry out. Under rules and regulations issued by the Secretary of Labor in 1968, each contractor and subcontractor subject to the provisions of the Executive order must "develop a written affirmative action compliance program for each of their establishments." The OFCC has delayed the award of a number of contracts under these procedures, and other actions are now awaiting decision of hearing panels.

A special effort to increase minority participation in federally financed construction work is also underway. The Model Cities, public housing, and other Government programs involve the employment of a very large number of workers in the construction trades, where hourly wage rates are among the highest in the country and the proportion of Negro workers in the skilled jobs is very low. On these as on other federally financed projects, the OFCC regulations require affirmative action to insure against discrimination by contractors. Both the 1966 act establishing the Model Cities Program and the Housing and Urban Development Act of 1968 go beyond this, however. They specify that maximum opportunities for employing residents of the areas served must be provided in all phases of the program.

An order issued by the Department of Labor in 1969 to insure more equitable participation by Negroes in federally assisted construction work has become known as the Philadelphia Plan. This is directed primarily toward guaranteeing increased opportunities for Negroes in six trades in the Philadelphia area.

Under the plan, bidders on construction projects exceeding $500,000 in value are required to set up specific goals for employing minority group workers within a range set forth in the contract specifications. The trades covered by the plan are iron workers, plumbers and pipefitters, steamfitters, electrical workers, sheetmetal workers, and elevator construction workers. It is planned that, by the end of 1973, at least 20 percent of the work force in these trades will be members of minority groups.

The range of minority representation to be reached in the specified trades in Philadelphia is based on the following factors:

—Members of minority groups currently hold under 2 percent of the union jobs in the six designated trades.

—Between 1,200 and 1,400 minority craftsmen with training and/or experience are available for work in construction trades in the Philadelphia area.

—Between 5,000 and 8,000 minority group members would accept training within a year's time if they were assured of jobs upon completion. (The Department of Labor plans to increase its support of apprenticeship outreach programs in Philadelphia and to set up a journeyman-training program.)

—Contractors would be able to hire minority workers up to the annual rate of job vacancies for each trade without adverse impact on the existing labor force.[11]

The Philadelphia Plan provides that if the goals are not being met "the contractor shall be given an opportunity to demonstrate that he made every good faith effort to meet his commitment." Further, as an alternative to accepting the specified goals, the contractor may agree to participate in a multiemployer affirmative action program which has been approved by the OFCC.

The Secretary of Labor, in answer to requests from a number of other cities for extension of the Philadelphia Plan, has stressed that this is only one of several possible approaches to greater representation of Negroes and other minority group members in better paying jobs on Government-financed construction jobs. He indicated that his preference would be to reach this goal through voluntary agreements by the construction contractors and unions within the community or through greater utilization of Negro contractors on Government projects.

The building trades have already made some progress in opening high-paying construction jobs to Negroes and other minority group members. The local building trades unions have recently been urged by their national organizations to invite qualified minority journeymen to apply for union membership and, for a period of time, to accept into the union all those who meet the ordinary membership requirements. In addition, in Baltimore, Boston, Buffalo,[12] Oakland, St. Louis, and Washington, D.C., training and job-readiness programs have been set up to provide Negro and other minority workers who have had some experience in the construction industry with the skills required for journeyman status and union membership. There are plans to extend this program to a dozen other major cities.

Apprenticeship Outreach Program

The Apprenticeship Outreach Program—sponsored by the AFL–CIO Building and Construction Trades Department and cooperating employers, with aid from the Department of Labor—is another significant move toward fuller participation of minority groups in highly paid, skilled construction jobs. By late 1969, over 5,000 youth from minority groups (most of them Negroes) had been placed in apprenticeship as a direct result of this program—more than double the number placed less than a year earlier.[13]

The outreach program is built on techniques developed by the Workers' Defense League, in cooperation with the A. Philip Randolph Education Fund.[14] Minority youth are recruited through churches, civil rights organizations, high schools, the Job Corps, and other groups. They are generally given intensive preparation for the apprenticeship entrance examinations by special tutorial methods, which have been extremely successful in helping them to pass these tests.

The program was being conducted in 54 cities in late 1969—with 16 projects operated by local building and construction trades councils, 22 by local affiliates of the National Urban League, 12 by the Workers' Defense League, and eight by other groups. About 20 trades are involved in the program, with the largest numbers of trainees in the carpenter, electrician, painter, and pipe trades.

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[11] Department of Labor, Order to Heads of All Agencies, from Arthur A. Fletcher, Assistant Secretary for Wage and Labor Standards, Sept. 23, 1969.

[12] The program in Buffalo was operative for 1 year; it was terminated on May 29, 1969.

[13] The other minority groups represented are Spanish Americans, Orientals, and American Indians.

[14] Since January 1967, this program of the Workers' Defense League has been given financial support by the Department of Labor.

Building trades unions are also engaged in other efforts to help minority youth qualify for apprenticeship. For example, the Greater Washington Central Labor Council has sponsored "Project Build" in Washington, D.C., with funding as a demonstration project under the Manpower Development and Training Act. In this project, disadvantaged, out-of-school youth are recruited for a half-year period of job orientation, classroom training, and supervised work experience on housing rehabilitation and construction sites. If at the end of that period a young man cannot qualify for apprenticeship, the union organizations are pledged to find him a job covered by a collective bargaining agreement. Of the 140 youth who completed the first two training cycles, more than half became registered apprentices, about a dozen became members of the laborers union, and some of the remainder were placed in work that may lead to apprenticeship. Others were drafted, took unrelated jobs, or dropped out of training.

The Job Corps Conservation Centers also have a series of training projects conducted jointly with unions. Enrollees are trained by journeymen, under union supervision—in carpentry, painting, and the operation of heavy equipment. Upon completion of this training, they are referred to local unions for acceptance into apprenticeship and employment in the trade. Since most of these trainees are members of minority groups, the program has contributed directly to the employment of young Negroes and members of other minorities in skilled trades.

Recommendations of the National Manpower Advisory Committee

The National Manpower Advisory Committee,[11] at its September 1969 meeting, emphasized the crucial importance of opening more well-paid jobs to Negro workers. It discussed at length the possible alternative approaches to this objective in the construction industry and the many-sided problems involved.

The conclusions of the Committee, as submitted to the Secretary of Labor for his review and consideration, were, in part, as follows:[12]

> 1. It is desirable and necessary for the Federal Government to take a more active role in expanding employment opportunities for minorities in the construction trades because of the uneven progress that has been made in this industry since the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Without intensified Federal efforts future progress is likely to be slow.
>
> 2. Greater access of Negroes to good jobs in the construction industry is now considered by many as the touchstone of the Federal Government's commitment to equal employment. Lack of significant progress on this front will inevitably contribute to frustration in the Negro community with increasingly serious consequences to the peace and prosperity of our cities.
>
> 3. Although we attach critical importance to broadening the access of minority groups to high paying jobs in the construction industry, we see the present control over entrance jobs in the industry as one aspect of the larger problem of licensing and certification. We believe, therefore, that the Federal Government should indicate that it plans to move against arbitrary exclusionary policies and practices wherever they exist and that it is not singling out the construction industry.
>
> 4. We distinguished reforms involving apprenticeship from those involving journeymen's status and union membership. We believe that it will be somewhat easier to elicit union cooperation in providing journeyman status and union membership for qualified Negroes. It is our understanding that in Baltimore, Gary, Boston, and St. Louis this approach is being followed with considerable success.
>
> 5. One of our members . . . called attention to the efforts which are soon to be launched by the Urban Coalition to organize Negro contractors and in connection therewith to establish a significant training component. It may well be that the Department of Labor can be helpful in establishing the training program.
>
> 6. Although we believe that major stress should be placed on having Negro journeymen accepted into the union, we recognize that the apprenticeship route also should be used. In this connection we think that more can be done to replicate the Workers' Defense League approach used in New York City.
>
> 7. We strongly urge you to include on the Federal Advisory Council on Apprenticeship representatives of education and the public. We hope that this will contribute to a better understanding of the impact of the current regulations governing apprenticeship. It would also be desirable if the governors of the States would broaden their advisory committees to include representatives of the public.
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> 8. A broadened Federal Advisory Council on Apprenticeship should be encouraged to give priority attention to such matters as the appropriateness of the curricula,

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[11] The National Manpower Advisory Committee is composed of representatives of labor, management, agriculture, education, training, and the general public, appointed by the Secretary of Labor as required by the Manpower Development and Training Act. The Committee is responsible for advising the Secretary relative to his duties under the act.

[12] Letter to the Secretary of Labor from Eli Ginzberg, Chairman, National Manpower Advisory Committee, Oct. 16, 1969.

the length of training, and the criteria for selection of apprentices.

9. As a result of our continuing concern with this problem, we believe that the Federal Government was on the right track when it sought to build in objective criteria of performance in the Philadelphia Plan. However, we ask whether this might be done more effectively than by stipulating an explicit ratio of blacks to whites on intake. A preferred way may be to have management and labor agree on a goal that appears reasonable to minority groups and to Government.

10. In States such as California which have an elaborate system of junior colleges it may be possible to institutionalize the process whereby minority group members obtain training in skills with the promise of union membership upon the completion of their preparation. Apparently several such successful patterns have been worked out.

11. It would be desirable to encourage more unions to establish a series of qualification levels between apprentice and journeyman. The Iron Workers Union, for example, has seven such gradations.

12. More progress could be made on opening up the construction trades to minority group members if it were possible to link such efforts with guarantees of steady work to the existing membership.

Spanish Americans

The 10 million Spanish Americans in the United States are the country's second largest ethnic minority group.[17] About 6.5 million reside in the southwestern States of Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas. Some families have lived in the Southwest since long before that part of the country was annexed from Mexico. Others are first, second, or third generation Mexican Americans. Still others, living primarily in the eastern part of the country, have come from Puerto Rico, where they already had American citizenship, or from Cuba, other Caribbean islands, or Central or South American countries. Nearly all came in search of better employment opportunities or greater political freedom. However, many are handicapped by limited education, lack of skill, and inadequate knowledge of English, and their cultural patterns set them apart from the country's mainstream in ways that inhibit their economic progress. Their language and cultural differences are one of the causes for the prejudice and inequality of treatment which they often encounter in the labor market.

Nevertheless, when individual Spanish Americans have overcome their language and educational handicaps, they are not likely to meet the discriminatory barriers commonly faced by Negroes. Propertied and educated Spanish Americans for the most part find the doors open to them in both employment and social life (except where licensing requirements for professional practice bar immigrants who received professional training in their native countries from entering the same specialty in the United States).[18]

MEXICAN AMERICANS

Mexican Americans fare worse than "Anglos" in the occupations they are able to enter and in their earnings, but they are generally somewhat better off than Negroes in the same geographic areas, according to the fragmentary evidence available. How far Mexican Americans fall behind Anglos in access to preferred industries and occupations is shown by a survey conducted by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights in six Texas metropolitan areas in 1966. As table 4 indicates, relatively more Mexican Americans were in the lower wage industries like apparel and textiles than in higher paid ones like oil and gas extraction, or in predominantly white-collar fields like banking. But the proportion in white-collar and skilled jobs was much higher for them than for Negroes.

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[17] The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, in which rests the authority for implementation of title VII of the Civil Rights Act, has for purposes of the act defined this group as those of Latin American, Mexican, Puerto Rican, or Spanish origin. It also notes that the following States are among those having large concentrations of Spanish Americans: Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, and Texas.

[18] Raul Moncarz, *A Study of the Effect of Environmental Change on Human Capital Among Selected Skilled Cubans* (Tallahassee: Florida State University, 1969). This recent study of over 500 Cuban refugees, funded by the Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor, indicates that those who had been members of the health professions (with the exception of physicians) experience difficulties in gaining entry into, and practice in, their professions. On the other hand, a great majority of civil and electrical engineers and architects covered by this small survey work in their chosen fields. The difficulties experienced by Cuban professional refugees stem not only from inadequate knowledge of English, but also from licensing practices in this country.

TABLE 4. PERCENT OF MEXICAN AMERICAN, NEGRO, AND ANGLO WORKERS EMPLOYED IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS IN SIX METROPOLITAN AREAS OF TEXAS, 1966

Industry and occupation	Percent of employees who were—		
	Mexican American	Negro	Anglo
Oil and gas extraction, total	2. 1	1. 6	96. 3
White-collar workers	. 9	. 5	98. 6
Craftsmen	1. 2	. 2	98. 6
Other blue-collar workers	7. 0	6. 2	86. 8
Banking, total	8. 3	8. 7	83. 0
Retail trade (general merchandise), total	22. 8	7. 0	70. 3
White-collar workers	21. 0	1. 9	77. 1
Craftsmen	29. 9	3. 4	66. 7
Other blue-collar workers	28. 9	30. 1	41. 0
Food and kindred products, total	37. 2	11. 4	51. 4
White-collar workers	10. 8	2. 7	86. 5
Craftsmen	28. 1	7. 5	64. 4
Other blue-collar workers	52. 8	16. 7	30. 5
Apparel and textiles, total	81. 4	3. 9	14. 7
White-collar workers	42. 0	1. 0	57. 0
Craftsmen	86. 6	1. 5	11. 9
Other blue-collar workers	85. 5	5. 3	9. 2

SOURCE: *The Mexican American Population of Texas*, Staff Report, U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1968, pp. 21–22.

Still clearer evidence of the concentration of Spanish Americans in the lower level jobs comes from the recent hearings of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission on minority employment in Los Angeles. Though Spanish Americans represented only about 10 percent of the population of Los Angeles in 1967, they held 30 percent of the laborer jobs in the area. Patterns of underemployment of Spanish Americans were found in the motion picture and television industries and also in banking, insurance, and aerospace companies.

The concentration of poor Mexican Americans in some slum areas of Los Angeles and Houston is indicated by the Department of Labor's new urban employment surveys for the year ending June 30, 1969. Nearly half of the population in the Los Angeles poverty areas, and one-fifth in Houston, were Mexican Americans (or, in a few cases, people of other Spanish American backgrounds). The unemployment rates for Mexican American workers were about 6 percent in both the Los Angeles and Houston areas—far above the average rate for all workers in the country but also much below the rates for Negro workers in the same areas (as discussed in the following chapter on Employment and Poverty).[19]

Substandard wages were another prevalent problem. The proportion of Mexican American workers earning less than $65 for a full-time week—a rate roughly comparable to the Federal minimum wage standards—was as follows:

	Percent of workers earning less than $65 for a full-time week, July 1968–June 1969	
	Men	*Women*
Los Angeles	2. 5	20. 4
Houston	11. 3	47. 0

Furthermore, a great many Mexican Americans strive to earn their livings as migrant farmworkers. In 1968, over 95 percent of the 150,000 migrant farmworkers from Texas were Mexican American.[20] These workers are still among the most deprived in the country, despite some recent improvement in their situation. Ending the importation of Mexican braceros has helped somewhat, however, and so have strengthened regulations with respect to housing standards, minimum wages, and other living and working conditions.

The low average level of education among Mexican Americans is a major factor impeding their movement into better paying jobs. Adult Mexican Americans in one county of Texas, for example, had a median of only 5.9 years of schooling in 1966. In 17 other counties on or near the Mexican border, median years of schooling were even lower (from 1.4 to 5.4 years). The younger Mexican Americans have somewhat more schooling than older ones, but the low overall educational level cannot be attributed primarily to immigration:

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[19] Developments cited for Negroes in the urban employment surveys represent figures for Negroes and other minority races. In New York and Houston, Negroes comprise over 98 percent of this group; in Los Angeles, about 91 percent.

[20] *Texas Migrant Labor; The 1968 Migration*, The 1968 Annual Report of the Texas Good Neighbor Commission, established by the Texas State Legislature on Sept. 1, 1965.

less than one-sixth of the adult population in the 18 counties were foreign born.[21] Rather, these people's lack of education reflects linguistic, cultural, and economic problems. Until recently, only English was used in the schools of the Southwest; this has been one reason for the high dropout rate for Mexican American children during the first 9 years of school. In addition, the large numbers whose parents are migrant farmworkers have had their education interrupted many times as their families followed the crops.

A number of programs have been undertaken to remedy the educational deficiencies of Spanish-speaking people. These include experimental attempts to provide bilingual education, which are estimated to have reached some 5,000 young Spanish-speaking students in fiscal year 1969. The Center for Urban Education, a regional education laboratory of the U.S. Office of Education, has approved some 58 bilingual (Spanish-English) programs, to be conducted in 15 States, and to include some 19,000 students by the end of fiscal 1970. In addition, a High Intensity Language Training Program has prepared Teachers Corps members to help Spanish-speaking students; teacher-preparation conferences have been held to bring school personnel together with the Mexican American community; and special courses have been developed for children of migratory workers.

PUERTO RICANS

Puerto Ricans in the United States suffer from the same employment disadvantages as other Spanish Americans. Chief among these are the language barrier, inadequate education and training, and discrimination. In some respects, the language problem may be even more difficult for Puerto Ricans than for Mexican Americans in the Southwest; outside of Spanish-speaking neighborhoods such as East Harlem, the Spanish language and customs are not generally understood in New York City. Also, unlike immigrants, Puerto Ricans are under no pressure to master English in order to gain American citizenship.

Migration from Puerto Rico to the mainland United States has been largely a post-World War II phenomenon, closely related to the level of prosperity and availability of jobs on the mainland. When jobs become scarce on the mainland, the net inflow of workers is reduced or even reversed.

Most of the early in-migrants from Puerto Rico settled in New York City, where they found relatively unskilled jobs, particularly in consumer industries. Today the Puerto Rican population of New York City is close to 1 million. However, the proportion of people arriving from Puerto Rico who remain in New York City has declined somewhat, as better employment opportunities have opened up for them in other sections of the country.

Unfortunately, there is as yet little information on how Puerto Ricans have fared in the United States as a whole. However, in New York City, where most of the Puerto Ricans on the mainland still live, they fare less well than any other minority group.

The poverty areas of Harlem, Bedford-Stuyvesant, and the South Bronx are among those covered by the Department of Labor's urban employment surveys during the year ending in June 1969. The unemployment rates for Puerto Ricans in these poverty areas were found to be higher than those for Mexican Americans in the poverty areas of Los Angeles or Houston. Puerto Ricans also had more unemployment and lower earnings than Negroes in the New York City slums (as indicated in the chapter on Employment and Poverty).

The fact that Puerto Ricans, as a group, had less work and lower earnings than the Negroes in these poverty areas reflects in part their lower educational level. Nearly half of those aged 18 or over had no more than 8 years of school, and many were educated in Puerto Rico—in Spanish, not English. The New York City Board of Education reported that during the 1967–68 school year, some 100,000 pupils of foreign-language background (mostly Puerto Ricans) were learning English as a second language in the city schools.

It is not surprising, therefore, that both the men and the women were concentrated in low-paid, low-skilled, low-status jobs—as operatives, laborers, or household or other service workers. Only a small percentage were in professional, technical, or managerial jobs.

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[21] *Summary of Staff Background Paper on Economic Activities and Economic Development in 18 Counties of South Texas* (Washington: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Dec. 6, 1968), pp. 5 and 6.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission held hearings in January 1968 on minority employment in 100 major firms in New York City. The data presented there showed that Puerto Ricans were more underrepresented in the better paying, higher status jobs than any other minority group. Although they made up 10 percent of the city's population, they held only 3 percent of the white-collar jobs in the companies studied and only 1 percent of the managerial positions.

SPECIAL PROGRAMS FOR SPANISH AMERICANS

Spanish Americans are, of course, eligible for, and participate in, the training and other programs for disadvantaged workers conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act and other legislation.[22] For example, Spanish Americans constitute a significant part of the population in poverty areas receiving services through the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP). About $30 million has been allocated for CEP projects in 13 southwestern areas, which have 50 percent of the total Mexican American population.

Because of the linguistic and cultural problems of members of this minority group, a number of special projects have been set up to meet their particular needs. In 1967, a temporary Cabinet-level Inter-Agency Committee on Mexican American Affairs was created by Executive order, to act as liaison between Spanish American people and the Government.[23] In the El Paso hearings held later that year by the Committee, the specific problems of the Mexican American were examined in detail and many recommendations were made. For example, the Committee suggested the need for further development of bilingual education, the extension of "outreach" efforts by Federal agencies to bring services to Spanish Americans, and participation by the Spanish American community in Model Cities Programs, school activities, and other improvement efforts.

One program designed specifically to meet Spanish American needs is Operation SER (Service, Employment, Redevelopment), a regional program run by Mexican Americans in Texas, New Mexico, Colorado, Arizona, and California. Operation SER is a self-help program, aimed at assisting members of this minority group to obtain better job preparation and job opportunities. SER projects have provided skill training, job development, job placement, and job followup services for more than 2,500 unskilled, unemployed people. In addition, almost 6,000 unemployed workers were placed in jobs through job banks and other advanced techniques. SER offices participated in 23 separate projects during fiscal year 1969 and provided a new and unique channel through which public employment offices and other organizations can serve Mexican Americans more effectively.

The Job Corps has had some centers specially designed for Spanish-speaking enrollees, with staff members who know Spanish and have the background needed to help them relate to these Corpsmen. The first new Job Corps Center established in fiscal 1970, under a program for restructuring the Corps, is in Phoenix, Ariz. Over 50 percent of this center's first group of enrollees have a Spanish-speaking background.

American Indians

A new approach to the economic and social problems of American Indians was called for by the President in a speech to the National Congress of American Indians on September 27, 1968. As he stated:

> The Indian people have been continuous victims of unwise and vacillating Federal policies and serious, if unintentional, mistakes . . . . They have been treated as a colony within a Nation—to be taken care of. They should—and they must—be made part of the mainstream of American life . . . .

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[22] See the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

[23] A Cabinet Committee on Opportunities for Spanish-Speaking People was established by act of the Congress in December 1969.

> The right of self-determination of the Indian people will be respected and their participation in planning their own destiny will be encouraged . . . .
>
> To date, the basic error of attempting to train the Indian work force only for off-reservation jobs has been the major cause of the lack of normal progress on the reservation.

Indians on reservations, who represent about two-thirds of the over 650,000 population, are now the country's most disadvantaged minority group. They have an extremely high unemployment rate; their average annual income is under $2,000—on some reservations as low as $500—and their housing and health conditions are comparably poor.[24] Particularly serious is the plight of the Alaskan native, whose income and educational levels are among the lowest for any group of Americans and whose life expectancy is considerably below that of the population generally.

The obstacles to equal opportunity for American Indians reach deep into the cultural and economic background of the Nation. Historically, American Indians have been outside the mainstream of the country's economic and industrial development. Reservations were set aside for them on the assumption that they would continue their traditional way of life, depending primarily on the land, under the protection of the Federal Government. No other segment of the population has been singled out for such deliberate separation from the majority of the population and its pattern of life.

One result of this long-established policy is that the American Indian today, as in the past, confronts a dilemma not faced in like degree by other minority groups. Shall he attempt to preserve or restore his culture, his social structure, his mode of living, his values, and his own language, or shall he become assimilated in the general culture of the country? There has never been, and there is not now, unified opinion on this issue among the Indians themselves. Their attitudes are ambivalent. Many want to stay on the reservations, but many leave—although a large proportion of those who leave return.

Government attitudes toward Indians have also vacillated from extreme paternalism in one era to withdrawal of protection in another. The latter attitude was embodied in the "termination" policy of a few decades ago, which looked toward eventual closing of the reservations.

If American Indians were a homogeneous group, both their own decisions and the development of Government policy would be easier. But there are a great many different Indian languages and many different cultural patterns. Indian reservations, isolated culturally and geographically from the rest of the country, are similarly isolated from each other—making intertribal cooperation very difficult.

Recognition that neither full separation nor full assimilation is feasible for all Indians is now general, if belated, and out of this a third approach is in the making. Restoration of a traditional Indian society is obviously impossible; the traditional economic basis of Indian life—the land—will no longer support the Indians. Some acceptance of the modern economy therefore becomes imperative. This means development of industry, improved use of the land in the reservations, better education and training both for those who wish to remain on the reservation and for those who choose to leave, and improved living conditions and health care. At the same time, decisionmaking power and planning for their own future must increasingly pass to the Indians themselves.

The Commissioner of Indian Affairs, himself an Indian, is leading efforts to achieve greater Indian involvement in decisionmaking and program execution. In addition, Indians both on and off the reservations are showing increased determination to assert a dominant voice in their own future, with the young among them taking the lead for the first time. Indians migrating to major cities have organized cultural and social service centers to help preserve their heritage, even though they have chosen to become part of the economic life of the community. The Indian centers in a number of cities have joined together to form "American Indians United." The National Congress of American Indians, in existence for many years, has in the past year become much more vocal and more strongly oriented toward Indian determination of reservation life, with continued and increased Government help. This national organization represents 105 Indian tribes (including Alaskan native villages) and more than 350,000 Indians.

Indian interest in securing greater self-determination focuses on education. Recognizing this, the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare recently stated: "One theme running through all our recommendations is increased Indian participation and control of their own educational programs." [25] Yet very few schools supported by the Bureau of Indian Affairs are governed by elected school boards, and Indians participate little or not at all in planning and developing new programs. Two Government schools have, however, been turned over to local Indian school boards, and there are some Indians on the boards of public schools attended by Indian children, though this is by no means common.

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[24] For a more extensive discussion of the economic situation of American Indians and the manpower programs aimed at alleviating their problems of unemployment, lack of education and training, and inequities arising from discrimination, see *1969 Manpower Report,* pp. 107–109, and *1968 Manpower Report,* pp. 68–69. The situation of the American Indian remains much the same as when these reports were prepared.

Nevertheless, moderate gains have been made in the education of Indian youth. Their school enrollment is rising rapidly. Although the number of Indian high school graduates has increased somewhat in the past 2 years, the proportion graduating remains much lower than that of the general population—reflecting a continued, very high dropout rate. The number of young Indians entering college, usually with Federal Government or tribal scholarships, has also risen. Indian schools have received considerable aid under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, as well as other legislation providing special assistance to needy school districts which serve Indian children. And in 1969, the first college with an all-Indian board of regents—the Navajo Community College at Many Farms, Ariz.—was established on a reservation.

Other developments may offer some promise. Through the establishment of new industries on the reservations, it has become possible to offer on-the-job training and employment to more Indians who want to remain there. Before 1960 only four factories were located on reservations; in 1968, 110 factories were in operation, employing more than 4,000 Indians. In addition, efforts are being made by the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the Economic Development Administration, and the Indians themselves to attract other industries to locations on or near the reservations, as well as to help the establishment of Indian-owned small businesses. That these developments can have some impact in reducing unemployment is suggested by the slight reduction in unemployment rates—from 49 percent for all reservation Indians in 1962 to 40 percent in 1968.[26]

Manpower programs have been designed or modified to meet the unique needs of Indians both on and off the reservations. While no precise figures are available, many Indian children and adults have benefited from programs conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Economic Opportunity Act. Increasing emphasis in all such programs is placed on teaching English as a second language. One of the greatest handicaps under which Indians still suffer in their attempt to become part of the present-day economic world is inadequate command of English.

Some improvements in housing and health care have also been made. Between 1963 and 1969, over 9,000 new homes were built on the reservations, with the assistance of various Federal agencies, and 4,300 existing homes were renovated or repaired. Furthermore, about 40,000 Indian and Alaskan native families will have been provided with both running water and adequate waste disposal facilities when projects authorized through fiscal 1969 under the Indian Sanitation Facilities Construction Act have been completed. However, the vast majority of reservation Indians will still be living in crowded, unsanitary dwellings, with few if any modern conveniences and inadequate and polluted water supplies.

The provision of more adequate medical care and other health services for Indians presents special problems, not only because of their unsanitary, crowded housing and otherwise poor living conditions, but also because methods of health service must be adapted to the customs and level of acculturation of each tribe. Despite these problems, the number of Indians and Alaskan native families benefiting from improved health services has increased steadily in the past few years. New and better equipped health centers have been built, and out-patient visits have tripled. Infant mortality was reduced by 48 percent between 1955 and 1967; however, it is still higher than for any other minority group. Indian health, according to the U.S. Public Health Service, is in about the same condition as was the health of ". . . the rest of the United States 20 to 25 years ago."[27]

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[25] *Indian Education: A National Tragedy—A National Challenge* (Washington: 91st Cong., 1st sess., U.S. Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, Special Subcommittee on Indian Education, 1969), Senate Report No. 91–501, p. xiii. Among the first recommendations was that there be set national policies "committing" the Nation to achieving educational excellence for American Indians, maximum participation and control by Indians in establishing Indian education programs, and assurance of sufficient Federal funds for the execution of the programs. The subcommittee also recommended that similar action be taken with regard to goals for Indian needs in health, housing, and employment.

[26] It should be noted that the unemployment estimates cited here were prepared by the Bureau of Indian Affairs and necessarily differ in concept from the unemployment data for the general population. The BIA reports as unemployed all members of the reservation labor force who are not at work. The labor force is defined as all Indians of employable age neither in school nor prevented from working by retirement, ill health, or child-care obligations.

The prospects for greater Indian self-determination and the meager improvements in employment and conditions of life which have taken place in the past year still leave the reservation Indians at the bottom of the economic and social order. Their present-day situation remains one of chronic poverty, massive unemployment, and social deprivation beyond anything experienced elsewhere in the United States.

Legislative Protections for Women and Older Workers

WOMEN WORKERS

Legislation with respect to the employment conditions of women workers is by no means new. State laws and regulations were, for many years, directed toward the protection of women workers from long hours of work, night work, and very strenuous tasks, such as lifting heavy weights. With the adoption of recent Federal and State laws outlawing discrimination in employment on the basis of sex, however, the main thrust of legislation for women workers underwent a basic change. It is now directed primarily toward helping women achieve equal employment opportunity.[28]

The (Federal) Equal Pay Act of 1963, which became generally effective in June 1964, prohibits employers whose workers are covered by the minimum wage provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act from discriminating in the payment of wages on the basis of sex. It further requires payment of equal wages for work demanding equal skill, effort, and responsibility, performed under similar working conditions. Most States also have laws prohibiting differentials in rates of pay based on sex.

Federal legislation prohibiting discrimination against women in hiring and other aspects of employment came soon after the Equal Pay Act. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 forbids discrimination in employment on the basis of sex, as well as race, religion, color, or national origin (as outlined earlier in this chapter). In addition, discrimination based on sex in Manpower Administration programs is prohibited by a 1966 order of the Secretary of Labor. Fair employment practices laws of 21 States and the District of Columbia also prohibit discrimination based on sex.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), which administers title VII of the Civil Rights Act, reported last year that complaints alleging sex discrimination have run second only to those based on race. According to the EEOC, two major problems have arisen in administering this title as it applies to women—interpretation of the "bona fide occupational qualification" exception provided in the law and reconciliation of the law with previously enacted State legislation. The EEOC has attempted to meet the first problem by narrowly defining the occupational qualifications which can be regarded as justification for not employing women, and by placing the burden of proof on the employer (or union, or employment agency) involved in each case.

To meet the second problem, the EEOC in August 1969 issued a new guideline finding that State protective legislation has ceased to be relevant to present-day technology or to the expanding role of women workers and does not take into account the preferences and abilities of individual women. The Commission concluded that such legislation now tends to discriminate against—rather than protect—women workers. Accordingly, it will not consider protective laws and regulations as a defense when an employment practice has been otherwise established as unlawful.

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[27] *The Indian Health Program of the U.S. Public Health Service* (Washington: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1969 rev.), Public Health Service Publication No. 1026, p. 1.

[28] For a discussion of the problems bearing on equal employment opportunity for women, see the section on the Federal Government later in this chapter; also the chapter on Manpower Demand and Supply in Professional Occupations; and *1967 Manpower Report*, pp. 133–139.

The court decisions which have been rendered so far on cases involving these principles have been somewhat conflicting. But the majority of opinions have held that title VII supersedes State laws which are overly protective and that an employer may not set arbitrary standards with respect to employment of women workers and then invoke the bona fide occupational qualification exception as an excuse. However, no cases in this area have yet reached the Supreme Court, so the difficult issues involved in the prohibition of sex discrimination are not yet finally resolved.

OLDER WORKERS

Older workers who have jobs are often protected against layoff or downgrading by seniority, promotion-from-within policies, and pension plans. Once they have lost a job, however, they are likely to have much greater difficulty in finding new employment than younger workers.[29]

Recognition of the employment problems of older workers resulted in passage of the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 (effective in June 1968). This act forbids discrimination because of age against workers 40 to 65 years old. It applies to employers with 25 or more workers in industries affecting interstate commerce, to employment agencies which serve such employers, and to labor unions. About half the States have also passed legislation prohibiting age discrimination.

The first report on activities pursuant to the Federal act was submitted to the Congress in January 1969 by the Department of Labor, which is responsible for administering this legislation. The largest numbers of discriminatory practices discovered involved either employment advertising which included illegal age specifications or refusal to hire older workers.

Cases of violations under the act have not yet been tested in the courts; so it is not yet possible to evaluate the statute's effectiveness. However, the fact that such legislation exists is a first step in national recognition of the employment rights of older workers.

Equal Opportunity in Government Employment

THE FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE

The principle of nondiscrimination in employment has been a central feature of the Federal civil service system since its founding over 80 years ago. The Civil Service Act of 1883—now, as then, the cornerstone of the Federal merit system—calls for an employment system based on merit and fitness alone. Under President Eisenhower, this concept was broadened to "equal employment opportunity," with his issuance of Executive Order 10590 in 1955. Each succeeding President has strongly supported the equal employment opportunity principle.

Only 2 months after he took office, President Nixon ordered the Civil Service Commission to review the Government's equal employment opportunity programs and recommend action steps to achieve further progress.[30] In a memorandum to Federal agencies announcing this review, the President said:

> I want to emphasize my own official and personal endorsement of a strong policy of equal employment opportunity within the Federal Government. I am determined that the executive branch of the Government lead the way as an equal opportunity employer.

Recent Progress in Minority Group Employment

Greatly increased recruitment of Negroes and members of other minority groups was an important objective in the 1965–68 period of expansion in Federal employment. The number of Negroes in Government jobs, for example, rose from about 309,000 to over 390,000 between June 1965 and

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[29] For a detailed discussion of the employment situation of older workers, see *1964 Manpower Report,* pp. 133–148, and *The Older American Worker—Age Discrimination in Employment,* Report of the Secretary of Labor to the Congress under Section 715 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Washington: Department of Labor, June 1965). Also see *1969 Manpower Report,* pp. 112–114.

[30] The Civil Service Commission was assigned responsibility for these programs in 1965 by Executive Order 11246.

November 1967, or by 26 percent—nearly double the overall rate of increase in the Federal work force.[31]

The result was a rise in the proportion of Negro Federal workers from 13.5 percent in June 1965 to 14.9 percent in November 1967. By late 1968, this proportion had reached an estimated 16 percent [32]—almost 1½ times the percentage of Negroes in the country's labor force as a whole. In addition, the Government employed over 70,000 Spanish Americans.

Federal equal employment opportunity officials took advantage of the exceptional number of job opportunities available between 1965 and 1968 and conducted active recruitment campaigns to attract members of minority groups and the disadvantaged to the Federal service. The success of their efforts is indicated in table 5. The Department of Defense added about 25,000 Negro employees between June 1965 and November 1967, with most entering in the November 1966–November 1967 period of particularly rapid expansion in the Department's civilian staff. The Post Office Department added more than 40,000 Negroes to its work force, with 37,500 of these coming in the November 1966–November 1967 period.

With the leveling off in Federal employment in 1969, the gains in minority group employment necessarily slowed down. Total full-time employment in the Federal executive branch grew by only 3 percent from December 1968 to August 1969. And policies announced by the President in connection with his budget requests for fiscal 1970 indicate little if any further growth in the near future.

There will, of course, continue to be Government hiring—including minority group members—to replace employees who retire, die, or leave the service for others reasons. Though turnover rates are expected to be below those of the past few years, substantial numbers of new workers will be needed.[33] But the total number recruited will be sharply lower than in the recent past.

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[31] The following discussion focuses on Federal employment of Negroes, for whom the most complete data are available. Basic findings for Negroes, however, generally apply also to employment of American Indians, Spanish Americans, Orientals, and Alaskan natives. Members of these groups, added to Negroes, constituted a total of 19 percent of all Federal employees in 1967.

[32] Complete governmentwide data on employment of Negroes are not yet available for 1968 or 1969; Federal service minority group censuses are conducted only biennially, in November of odd-numbered years. Estimates from partial data, however, indicate that the rise in Negro employment continued in 1968, although at a reduced rate.

[33] Since most turnover takes place among newly hired employees, that is, those with less than 1 year of Federal service, Federal turnover rates tend to rise sharply after new employees are added in large numbers and to decline proportionately following a dropoff in new position hires. Since the peak of Federal growth hiring, reached in 1967, is now well past, Federal turnover rates have recently shown their expected sharp declines. In some occupations, current turnover rates have dropped to as low as one-half of their late 1967 levels.

Table 5. Negro Employment in Federal Executive Agencies, November 1967, and Percent Change From June 1965

[Numbers in thousands]

Agency	November 1967			Percent change, June 1965–November 1967	
	Total employment	Negro		Total employment	Negro employment
		Number	Percent of total		
Total	2, 621. 9	390. 8	14. 9	14. 5	26. 5
Defense	1, 098. 5	131. 2	11. 9	19. 0	22. 9
Post Office	700. 5	132. 4	18. 9	19. 2	43. 5
Veterans Administration	150. 5	39. 1	26. 0	. 9	6. 2
Health, Education, and Welfare	103. 4	22. 3	21. 6	22. 8	33. 6
Treasury	84. 9	12. 0	14. 1	−4. 1	−1. 5
General Services Administration	37. 9	13. 5	35. 6	8. 2	13. 3
Other	446. 2	40. 3	9. 0	5. 4	24. 6

Note: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission.

Another problem, emphasized by the Chairman of the Civil Service Commission in his report to the President on the progress of the Federal equal employment opportunity program, is that:

> Despite significant gains in overall employment of minority group persons in the Federal service, too many of our minority employees are concentrated at the lower grade levels, victims of inadequate education and past discrimination.

There are two main reasons for this concentration of minority employees in the lower grade levels. First, much of the increase in Negro employment was very recent. There has not yet been time for most of the beginners hired to move up from the trainee levels of their occupation to substantially higher grades. Second, many of the minority group members recently hired had limited education and skill and so tend to be concentrated in jobs not requiring advanced occupational qualifications.

New Directions in Federal Equal Opportunity Programs

In view of the heavy concentration of recently hired minority employees in the lower grades, the Civil Service Commission's report to the President on the Government's equal employment opportunity programs called for a major new direction for these programs. In particular, it recommended special emphasis on improved training and utilization of the Government's minority workers to help them move up to higher level jobs.

The President, in a memorandum to all agency heads on August 8, 1969, endorsed the new program directions recommended by the Commission and rèemphasized his policy of equal employment opportunity in the Federal service. The President said, in part:

> Discrimination of any kind based on factors not relevant to job performance must be eradicated completely from Federal employment. . . .
>
> While we must continue to search out qualified personnel from all segments of our population, we must now assure the best possible utilization of the skills and potential of the present workforce. Employees should have the opportunity to the fullest extent practicable to improve their skills so they may qualify for advancement. . . .

By Executive Order 11478, issued August 9, the President directed all executive departments and agencies to conduct affirmative equal opportunity programs and recruitment activities aimed at reaching all sources of job candidates. The thrust of new policy is most evident in the provisions of the order regarding administrative actions to improve the utilization, development, and advancement of present Federal employees.

The administrative actions undertaken and needed to widen opportunities for minority group members in the Federal service are of many kinds, as is indicated by the following examples.

Occupational Hiring Requirements. The educational and other requirements for employment in different occupations have been reviewed by several agencies, to insure that they do not bar minority and other disadvantaged workers from jobs for which they have the needed skills.

A critical review has also been made of competitive written test requirements to assure that the tests measure only abilities related to the immediate job (or if this is a trainee position, to higher jobs in the same occupation). This review has led to elimination of the written test for some occupations and in other cases to revisions in test content. For example:

> —A new test battery has been developed for the very large postal clerk and letter carrier occupations, based on extensive test experimentation with members of minority groups.
>
> —A nonverbal test of learning ability has been developed and is being tried out as a substitute for verbal tests in examining certain disadvantaged groups and groups with verbal handicaps.

In a more long-range development, the U.S. Civil Service Commission and the Educational Testing Service have joined in a study of the relationship between job and test performance for various ethnic groups when pertinent background factors are taken into consideration. It is hoped that this intensive study will determine whether there is any inappropriate cultural bias in such tests. This study is supported by the Ford Foundation.

A recent lowering in minimum age requirements permits young people who are not high school graduates to enter the Federal service as early as age 16, provided certain conditions are met. This will enable young high school dropouts—particularly those with training in the Job Corps, Neighborhood Youth Corps, or other special programs—to qualify for Federal employment if the appropriate school authorities judge this to be the best course of action for the individual involved.

Special procedures have been developed to identify candidates best suited to perform routine and repetitive jobs. Past approaches to filling these jobs have given preference to applicants showing previous successful work experience. However, this approach led to worker morale problems and to excessive turnover. The new approach recognizes that applicants who have not had previous significant employment or educational accomplishment may be those most likely to find simple work a challenge and to provide satisfactory services in the lowest level jobs. In fiscal 1969, this program's first full year of operation, Federal agencies reported more than 13,000 hires, primarily of the disadvantaged and the handicapped.

The MUST Program. The Civil Service Commission's MUST (Maximum Utilization of Skills and Training) Program emphasizes the coordinated use of such techniques as job design, the addition of lower skill jobs in established occupational ladders, and upgrading of employee skills through training and progressive experience. Hundreds of Federal agencies and installations throughout the United States have initiated programs applying these concepts. Their experience will be a major factor in future efforts to expand career opportunities for members of minority groups and other disadvantaged employees.

Some local programs have involved application of the full range of MUST concepts. For example:

> —The District of Columbia Government, in cooperation with the Civil Service Commission, has developed a new occupational series for social work assistants, which opens new career ladders for supporting personnel, largely minority group employees.
>
> —The Small Business Administration has made a special study of 1,500 clerical employees, many of them members of minority groups, in dead-end jobs. By separating out some of the lower level duties being performed by professional loan specialists, a series of loan servicing assistant positions of different grades was designed. It is expected that a good many of the agency's future loan specialists will be recruited from employees in these assistant positions.
>
> —The Agricultural Research Service Center at Beltsville, Md., draws heavily on minority groups to fill its laborer jobs. Workers who succeed in these jobs may move to research helper positions. Helpers are encouraged to take night school courses in science, and the more promising can move to research technician jobs. Most technician jobs at Beltsville are now filled in this way.
>
> —The Naval Shipyard at Philadelphia redesigned its helper jobs to shop learner positions and hired a large number of disadvantaged workers, after they had completed a special preemployment course at the Philadelphia Opportunities Industrialization Center. After 6 months, successful workers move to a training program, designed to qualify them for journeyman positions in 5½ years.

Employee Development. Another area of concern in equal employment opportunity programs—and one which will be of increasing importance for future career advancement efforts—is employee development, particularly inservice technical training.

A recent survey of inservice training activities by the Post Office Department, one of the Federal Government's largest minority group employers, illustrates a few of the many kinds of activities now underway in agencies and installations throughout the United States to upgrade the skills and capabilities of the Federal work force. Post Office training activities include an extremely comprehensive craft skill training program, an electronic technician training program, training in the maintenance and use of mail sorting equipment, and study guides and classes for employees interested in preparing for higher skill postal occupations and for the initial-level supervisory examinations.

When inservice examinations are developed for the more highly skilled postal occupations, members of minority groups are included on the teams that outline the job content to be covered. They also participate in the actual writing of the examinations to insure that the questions will be understood by all employees. In addition, the nonverbal parts of the examinations have been expanded and the number of illustrations increased to permit demonstration of knowledge and ability without reliance on school-learned verbal abilities.

Employment of Women

The employment of American women in public service antedates the U.S. Government itself. A woman postmaster had been in office 14 years when the Constitution was signed, but the Government service was almost exclusively a man's world until the 19th century.

The Civil Service Act of 1883 marked the turning point in Government careers for women. Under the merit system established by that act, women were permitted and even encouraged to compete in civil service examinations on the same basis as men.

Equal pay for women lagged far behind equal opportunity to compete in examinations, however. In fact, equality of the sexes with respect to pay did not become a reality until the Classification Act of 1923 established the present pay system, under which the salary rate for each job is determined solely on the basis of the duties and responsibilities involved. The Federal Government was the first among major employers to put into effect the principle of equal pay for equal work.

The last legal barrier to full equality of opportunity for women in the Federal service was removed in 1962. This was done by a ruling of the Attorney General—affirmed by Congressional action 3 years later—that agencies had no legal basis for requesting *only* men, or *only* women, in filling most positions, as had been the previous practice. Federal departments and agencies may no longer specify sex in filling any but a very few specific positions approved by the Civil Service Commission.

Executive Order 11375, issued in 1967, reinforced the intent to achieve equal opportunity for all persons in the Federal service by adding a provision prohibiting discrimination on the basis of sex to Executive Order 11246. This amendment gave the Federal women's program the same emphasis throughout the Government as all other elements of the equal employment opportunity program.

Gains in recruitment of women for Federal career opportunities since the early 1960's demonstrate the impact of these developments. The Federal Service Entrance Examination (FSEE) is a major vehicle for selection of college graduates for career trainee positions. The number of women hired from the FSEE increased by 130 percent between 1963 and 1968—a much sharper rise than in the number of men.

The total number of women in the Federal service also grew somewhat faster than employment of men from 1966 to 1968 (as shown in table 6). This held true in the senior grades (GS 13–15), as well as the middle and lower grades, but not in the supergrades (GS 16 and above).

TABLE 6. EMPLOYMENT OF MEN AND WOMEN IN FEDERAL WHITE-COLLAR JOBS, BY GRADE GROUP, OCTOBER 1968, AND PERCENT CHANGE FROM JUNE 1966

Grade	October 1968				Percent change, June 1966–October 1968	
	Men		Women			
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Men	Women
All grades	1,398,658	100.0	667,224	100.0	6.0	9.1
GS 1–6	587,879	42.0	525,581	78.7	5.6	6.6
GS 7–12	580,666	41.6	132,662	19.8	12.1	21.8
GS 13–15	212,687	15.2	6,262	.9	23.6	26.1
GS 16 and above	9,420	.7	147	(1)	–.1	–6.7
Ungraded [2]	3,965	.3	2,579	.4	–86.1	–74.1

[1] Less than .05 percent.

[2] For the most part, "ungraded" employees are support staff to the Federal judges and courts.

Note: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission.

Nevertheless, women Federal employees, like members of minority groups, are still heavily concentrated in the lower grades. Only about 1 percent of all the women in white-collar occupations are employed in the senior and super grades, compared with 13 percent for men.

The new directions for Federal equal employment opportunity policy, under Executive Order 11478, apply to women as well as minority groups, and the goal of the Federal women's program is to aid women's upward mobility.

Additional Directions of Action

The Federal Government's policy of equal employment opportunity applies to Spanish Americans, American Indians, Orientals, and Alaskan natives, as well as Negroes and women. Though only limited data are available for these smaller minority groups, it is known that their representation in the Federal civil service, like that of Negroes, has increased greatly in recent years, but chiefly in the lower occupational grades. The policies aimed at employee upgrading, called for by Executive Order 11478, are as important therefore for these smaller groups as for Negroes and women.

The Government's extensive employment programs for the disadvantaged also contribute to equal employment opportunity. A number of agencies have developed special training programs for the hard-core unemployed, leading to regular positions in the competitive civil service. The Civil Service Commission itself undertook a program to train hard-core unemployed youth, with employment in Federal agencies guaranteed upon successful completion of training. The largest agency program of this type is in the Department of Defense, where training leading to regular appointments was provided to approximately 3,000 disadvantaged youth during 1968–1969. The programs have reached all ethnic groups, in many geographic locations across the Nation.

Another area of activity is the Government's summer employment program. In the summer of 1969 Federal agencies hired a total of 126,000 temporary workers. Of these, nearly two-thirds (80,000) were needy youth aged 16 through 21, many of them members of minority groups. An additional 14,000 needy students, who had worked part time during the school year, were kept on as full-time employees during the summer under the President's Stay-in-School Program.

Federal agencies also participate actively in public and private manpower development programs for the unemployed and underemployed, again including large numbers from minority groups. They have served as host agencies, providing work experience and training to enrollees in such programs as the Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Job Corps, the College and Vocational Work-Study programs, New Careers, and the new Work Incentive Program.[24] More than 7½ million man-hours of work experience are provided annually by Government agencies under these programs.

STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

State and local government agencies are still almost wholly exempt from Federal antidiscrimination laws and regulations—except for the requirements of the 14th Amendment to the Constitution, which prohibit discrimination by State or local authorities.

Assessment of accomplishments and deficiencies in achieving equal opportunity in the more than 80,000 State and local government units in the country is hampered by the absence of comprehensive data on the ethnic distribution of their employees, such as are available for both Federal agencies and private employers. However, a survey of equal employment opportunity in State and local government units in seven metropolitan areas—San Francisco-Oakland, Philadelphia, Detroit, Atlanta, Houston, Memphis, and Baton Rouge—was conducted by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights in 1967.[25] The survey focused on metropolitan areas because Negroes, the largest minority group, are highly urbanized and the largest number of State and local government jobs are located in and around large cities.

Civil Rights Commission Findings

According to the Civil Rights Commission survey, practically all the jurisdictions employed

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[24] For a discussion of these programs, see the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

[25] See *For All the People . . . By All the People, A Report on Equal Opportunity in State and Local Government Employment* (Washington: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1969). The survey covered 420 government units of all types except school districts.

Negroes and, in the Southwest, Spanish Americans. Some public jobs seem to have been set aside especially for minority group members, particularly Negroes. Opportunities for Negroes were not as sharply limited to particular job categories in the North as in the South, however.

Both Spanish Americans and Negroes were concentrated in jobs at the lower end of the occupational scale. But in the two metropolitan areas where data on Spanish Americans were collected, they had more occupational options than Negroes, though many fewer than other white workers.

Despite the very large amount of Federal financial assistance given to State and local governments for specific purposes in recent years, Federal policies have been directed toward promoting equal employment opportunity in these governments in only two major areas:

—*The Federal Standards for a Merit System of Personnel Administration.* These apply to a number of federally aided programs administered by the States, principally under the Social Security Act of 1935 and its amendments. The Commission found that there had been little change in minority employment since the adoption of the standards, owing at least in part to lack of enforcement procedures.

—*Equal employment opportunity clauses in contracts between the Department of Housing and Urban Development and local agencies.* Here again, consistent and effective enforcement procedures had been lacking.

Beginning in the late 1960's, attempts were made by the Federal Government to strengthen and improve enforcement activities under these policies. However, as the Commission said, "... the small percentage of total State and local government employment covered by either of these nondiscrimination requirements limited effective action."

In 1968, for the first time, a Federal court suit was filed against Alabama to enforce compliance with the nondiscrimination clause of the Federal merit standards. It was charged that the State had, since 1963, failed to adopt racial nondiscrimination regulations and had systematically denied employment to Negroes in federally aided programs subject to the standards. In the same year, another suit was filed charging Federal contract violations—including discrimination in both tenant selection and employment practices—by the Little Rock, Ark., Housing Authority. Moreover, a prohibition against discrimination on the part of State highway departments was added to the Federal Highway Act of 1968, thus somewhat extending the coverage of nondiscrimination requirements in State employment.

In summary, the Commission found that:

—Negroes hold close to one-fourth of State and local government jobs, of which more than half are in central city governments. In most of the areas surveyed, Negro employment in State and local government is considerably higher than in private industry. Furthermore, Negroes have better access to white-collar jobs in public than private employment. For example, in Philadelphia, the proportion of Negro officials and managers in State and local government is about nine times that in private industry.

—The numbers of Negroes working for northern State governments exceed their proportion of the population there. This does not hold true in the South.

—Negroes, to a large extent, hold jobs on the lower rungs of the occupational ladder, such as general service and common laborer work, characterized by low pay, few entry skills, and little if any opportunity for advancement.

—Negroes are much more likely to hold white-collar jobs in some departments (for example, health and welfare) than in others (for example, financial administration and public safety). Departments which conduct much of their work with the minority community hire many more Negro workers than other agencies.

—A major source of job recruitment for government jobs is an informal word-of-mouth network to which Negroes are unlikely to have access, especially for white-collar jobs.

—State and local government authorities are using unvalidated written tests as part of their hiring practices. Many officials note that these tests do not measure job performance.

—Barriers to equal employment opportunity for Negroes are greater among uniformed policemen and firemen than in any other sector of State and local government. Reports of discriminatory treatment in work assignments, promotions, and personal relationships were also more frequent in these than in any other area of government studied.

To combat discriminatory barriers, the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights recommended that the coverage of title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which forbids discrimination in employment, be extended to State and local governments. The Commission also recommended withholding Federal funds from State and local agencies where there is employment discrimination affecting workers involved in federally assisted programs.

The many other recommendations made by the Commission to insure equal opportunity in State and local government employment include:

—Requirement of evidence that tests used in personnel selection are valid in forecasting job performance.

—Contact with minority organizations for recruitment aid.

—Increased use of training programs.

—Periodic review of the employment status of minority workers, based on written records, in order to identify patterns of minority underutilization and also to assess the effectiveness of different employment practices in overcoming discriminatory barriers.

Recent Progress in Implementing Equal Opportunity

Since the Commission on Civil Rights conducted its survey of State and local governments, a number of these governments have made changes in recruitment and personnel policies to insure greater equality of opportunity. The new programs are in line with many of the Commission's recommendations. In the main, they are directed at: (1) Improvement of outreach and recruitment techniques; (2) removal of unrealistic requirements for civil service jobs; (3) creation of new entry-level jobs with career potential; (4) revision of tests and examinations; and (5) development of training and upgrading programs for workers in entry and low-level positions.[*]

Efforts to improve *recruitment techniques* have taken a number of forms. The Civil Service Commission of the State of New Jersey, for example, has asked local Community Action agencies, minority group organizations, and organizations working with the disadvantaged to refer possible candidates. A unique feature of this program is the effort to encourage prisoners to take examinations for some positions—after which the prisoners are placed on certification lists, according to their ratings.

The State of Connecticut has set up branch offices in inner-city areas, at which job applicants are counseled and assisted in filling out applications; when necessary, they are accompanied to agencies where vacancies exist. Affirmative action programs to recruit more minority employees are also underway in other States and cities.

Several State and local governments have initiated programs to develop *realistic and appropriate testing procedures* for entry and low-level jobs. In New Jersey and Connecticut, tests for training or entry-level jobs attempt to measure aptitude, not acquired skill. In New York City, applicants for certain jobs in poverty programs who pass the regular tests with a given score receive additional credit if they live in a poverty area, have a low income, or are older workers. This addition to their test scores helps to bring the poor and disadvantaged into the programs. A number of other cities and States are experimenting with new testing procedures, all aimed at opening jobs to the disadvantaged.

Training programs to prepare the disadvantaged for civil service positions have, in some instances, involved the creation of trainee or aide positions, from which movement into higher level work is expected. Programs of this and other types aimed at training the disadvantaged are underway in Connecticut, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. Los Angeles County has an ongoing program in its hospital for training clerical workers and hospital attendants. Seattle has an active training program for entry-level clerical and maintenance jobs, which includes both in-service training and outside formal education provided by the city.

Revision of requirements for entry jobs has probably been the most widespread approach to increasing opportunities for minority group members in State and local governments. Specific educational requirements have been eliminated in a number of instances. For example, in New Jersey the requirement of an eighth-grade education for unskilled positions has been eliminated in the career development program; all that is now required is the ability to read, write, and understand English sufficiently to follow instructions. The requirement of high school graduation for certain positions has been removed in Pittsburgh and other cities. The State of Pennsylvania has revised its employment practices with regard to arrest records and convictions.

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[*] Information on these program changes was developed by the National Civil Service League. See address by Jean J. Couturier, the League's executive director, at the Public Personnel Association International Conference, Detroit, Mich., Oct. 20, 1969.

Job restructuring to create entry-level positions and career ladders is underway in a number of State and local jurisdictions. In California, for example, subprofessional jobs are being created in a variety of occupational fields. In the State of Washington, the caseworker job series has been restructured, as have those of parole officer and employment service interviewer. Other cities and States are similarly experimenting with job redesign.

The number of jobs for minority group members thus created by State and local governments does not yet approach the need. But these government actions are welcome evidence that the problem of equal opportunity in public employment is receiving attention not accorded to it in the past—a matter of importance from two points of view: State and local governments are a very large and rapidly growing field of employment, offering the possibility of positions with career potential for large numbers of minority group members. At the same time, recruitment of workers from these groups can help to meet the personnel shortages which now impede the provision of adequate public services in many fields.

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EMPLOYMENT
AND
POVERTY

EMPLOYMENT AND POVERTY

Policies aimed at reducing poverty should start from the premise that most poor people are already working unless they are barred from jobs by labor market or personal circumstances. Contrary to a widely held opinion, what the great majority of poor people need is not a stronger work ethic but added skills and more employment opportunities at adequate wages, so that they can achieve a decent standard of living.

These conclusions—based on statistical evidence regarding the work experience of the poor—do not negate the seriousness of the work incentive problem in certain groups, especially families eligible for public assistance. The present public welfare system is so structured as to involve an actual disincentive to work in many cases. One of the basic purposes of the proposed Family Assistance Program (discussed in the following chapter) is to remedy this untenable situation and insure that people can always make more money by working than by depending wholly on public assistance. But added financial incentives to work would make, at best, a very small contribution to the reduction of poverty, unless supplemented by training and other services designed to remove the multiple barriers to employment and satisfactory wages for the disadvantaged (as is evident from the findings in the present chapter).

This chapter has two major parts. The first is concerned with the work patterns and characteristics of the men and women who head families with incomes below or near the poverty line. It makes plain that most poor family heads are workers, unless they are old, ill, or disabled, or women with young children—and that many of these are workers too. Some of the major factors which contribute to the poverty of the working poor are also considered—among them, lack of education and occupational skills, irregularity of employment, and substandard wages. In addition, there is a discussion of the great geographic differences in the incidence of poverty.

The findings make clear the variety of programs and strategies essential to an effective attack on poverty. Occupational levels and earnings of many poor workers must be upgraded; others need steady jobs; for still others, employment is a solution only if better health care, child day care, or rehabilitative services are provided. For many, some form of income maintenance will continue to be necessary. More effective program efforts in all these directions would be made possible by both the proposed Family Assistance Act and the Manpower Training Act, developed by the Administration and now pending before the Congress.[1]

The second section of the chapter deals with the concentrations of poverty and unemployment in poverty areas of six cities, as measured by the Department of Labor's new urban employment surveys. All the factors just mentioned contribute to the concentrations of poverty in each area. But there are also special problems in some areas, and differences in the relative importance of the various sources of poverty, which need to be recognized in programs to increase the employment and incomes of these areas' disadvantaged people.

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[1] For a discussion of these proposed acts, see the chapters on New Developments in Manpower Programs and Income Maintenance and Work Incentives.

Work Patterns and Characteristics of Poor Families

The number of families with incomes below the poverty line decreased sharply during the 1960's. In 1959, there were 8.3 million poor families (19 percent of all families in the United States). In 1968, there were 5.0 million (10 percent of all families).[2]

There has been an even sharper decline in the number of poor families whose heads are workers. In just 9 years (1959–68), the number of poor families headed by year-round, full-time workers declined by nearly 50 percent, whereas the number headed by persons who did not work at all declined by only 17 percent. Aided by the general rise in employment during this period, a great many families, especially those headed by men in the prime working age groups, were able to earn enough to raise themselves above the poverty level.

The family heads who have remained poor include a larger proportion of women (35 percent in 1968, as compared with 23 percent in 1959). Many of the men family heads who are still poor are too old or disabled to work; others are so unskilled and poorly educated that they could not take advantage of the improvement in employment opportunities and earnings for the work force as a whole. Some still suffer from racial or other forms of discrimination.

THE POVERTY STANDARD

In these data on poor families, the definition of poverty used is the standard poverty index developed by the Social Security Administration and recommended by the Bureau of the Budget for Government reports on this subject.[3] It should be recognized that this is a minimum subsistence standard, and a rigid one (except for annual adjustment for price increases).

The poverty index makes no allowance for an improvement in living standards, like that enjoyed by the population as a whole during the past decade. Between 1959 and 1968, the median income for all four-person families in the country rose by about one-third in real terms (after adjustment for the rise in the cost of living). But the poverty index for an average family of four was less than $600 higher in 1968 than 1959 ($3,531, compared with $2,943), an increase just large enough to allow for rising prices. Whereas in 1959 the poverty threshold represented about 48 percent of the average income of all four-person families, in 1968 it represented only 36 percent. The number of families below the established poverty line has dropped sharply (as already indicated), but the gap between their income level and that of the general population has widened.[4]

Another family income standard, referred to as "low income," is also used in this discussion. This standard is based on income cutoffs 25 percent above the poverty thresholds for farm and nonfarm families of given sizes. The low-income standard is slightly lower than the "near poor" definition developed by the Social Security Administration.[5]

Even the low-income standard is by no means generous. For a four-person nonfarm family headed by a man, the poverty cutoff in 1968 was $3,555. The comparable low-income cutoff would be $4,444. In contrast, the low-cost budget for an urban family of four persons with a fully employed head was estimated at $5,900 in the spring of 1967 and nearly $700 higher in early 1969 (to allow for rising prices).[6] Although these income-standard and budget figures differ in nature and source, the gap between them provides a good order of magnitude of the divergence between a budget which enables a family to "maintain health and social well-being, bring up children, and participate in community activities," on the one hand, and a poverty income, on the other.

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[2] A family is defined as a group of two or more persons living in the same household and related by blood, marriage, or adoption. The data in this section thus exclude unrelated individuals living in groups or alone.

The Bureau of the Census prepared all tabulations in this section.

[3] For a detailed discussion of the SSA poverty standards, see Mollie Orshansky, "Counting the Poor: Another Look at the Poverty Profile," *Social Security Bulletin*, January 1965; and "Who's Who Among the Poor: A Demographic View of Poverty," *Social Security Bulletin*, July 1965.

[4] It should be noted that the figures on poverty reflect the recent revisions in the poverty definitions, involving: (1) Annual revision based on changes in the Consumer Price Index as a whole rather than in the per capita cost of the Department of Agriculture's Economy Food Plan; and (2) raising the ratio of the farm to nonfarm poverty income threshold to 85 percent from 70 percent. These revisions are described in detail in the Bureau of the Census report *Revision in Poverty Statistics, 1959 to 1968*, Current Population Reports, Series P–23, No. 28. For a comprehensive presentation of historical data, see the Bureau of the Census report *Poverty in the United States, 1959 to 1968*, Current Population Reports, Series P–60, No. 68.

[5] The near-poor standard is based on the Department of Agriculture's "low cost" food budget, which is slightly larger than the "economy food plan" underlying the poverty definition.

[6] For a description of this budget, see *Three Standards of Living for An Urban Family of Four Persons, Spring 1967* (Washington: Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, March 1969), BLS Bulletin No. 1570–5.

EMPLOYMENT OF FAMILY HEADS

The two most striking facts about the work patterns of poor family heads are the large number who work year round, full time and the even larger number unable to work, for physical and other reasons.

Among the men, 1.1 million—1 out of every 3—worked 50 or more weeks of 1968, primarily at full-time jobs (35 hours a week or more) without escaping from poverty. The numbers who had insufficient employment (either part time or part year only) or were out of the work force all year were of similar magnitude (as indicated in table 1). Most of the nonworkers were disabled or over 65 years of age. For those who worked part of the year, physical disability and inability to find jobs were the major problems.

For the women heads of poor families, the chief obstacle to work is the presence of young children in the home. Over 80 percent of all poor families headed by women include at least one child under 18, and about half of these families include at least one preschool-age child (under 6). Nevertheless, over two-fifths of the women who are heads of poor families worked at some time during the year, and 1 out of every 8 worked all year at full-time jobs. Only a few of those who worked part of the year said the main reason they did not work more was inability to find a job; most were kept at home by family responsibilities.

These findings make plain why unemployment statistics alone are no adequate indicator of deprivation. In 1968, only about 8 percent (400,000) of all poor family heads said unemployment was the main reason for their failure to work more than

TABLE 1. WORK EXPERIENCE OF FAMILY HEADS, BY POVERTY STATUS OF FAMILY, 1968 [1]

Work experience	Families headed by men			Families headed by women		
	Percent distribution		Percent below poverty level	Percent distribution		Percent below poverty level
	Below low income level [2]	Below poverty level		Below low income level [2]	Below poverty level	
Total: Number (thousands)	5, 069	3, 232	7. 3	2, 193	1, 755	32. 3
Percent	100. 0	100. 0		100. 0	100. 0	
Year-round workers	42. 7	39. 8	3. 9	18. 6	16. 5	14. 7
Full time	38. 5	35. 3	3. 6	13. 9	12. 1	12. 2
Part time	4. 1	4. 5	16. 2	4. 7	4. 4	33. 9
Part-year workers	24. 4	25. 4	11. 8	27. 5	27. 5	38. 4
Main reason was:						
Unemployment	8. 6	8. 6	12. 0	4. 1	3. 8	31. 0
Disability	6. 9	7. 4	13. 5	3. 3	2. 8	25. 9
Other	8. 9	9. 5	10. 6	20. 1	20. 9	43. 0
Nonworkers	32. 9	34. 8	24. 4	53. 9	56. 0	44. 6
Main reason was:						
Unemployment	. 5	. 7	(3)	. 8	. 9	(3)
Disability	12. 8	14. 9	36. 2	8. 7	8. 8	43. 3
Other	19. 5	19. 2	19. 2	44. 4	46. 4	44. 5

[1] Families as of March 1969. Data exclude inmates of institutions and members of the Armed Forces.

[2] Includes poor families as well as those between the poverty and low income levels.

[3] Percent not shown where base is less than75,000.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due tounding.

SOURCE: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

part of the year (or not at all). This group was greatly outnumbered both by the poor family heads who were not in the labor force—principally the aged, but also women with small children and men with long-term disabilities—and by year-round workers who could not earn enough money.[7]

Regularity of employment is, nonetheless, a vital element in preventing poverty. Among families headed by men, the incidence of poverty (proportion of poor families among all families) was low (only 4 percent) when the head was a year-round, full-time worker. It rose to 12 percent for part-year workers and to 24 percent for nonworkers. The general pattern is similar for families with women heads, but the incidence of poverty in each case is much higher; it reached 45 percent for families whose women heads had no work during 1968.

Furthermore, among both full-time and part-time workers, the incidence of poverty is directly related to the number of weeks worked. This is shown by the following data for poor families whose heads had some work during 1968:

	Poor families whose head worked—			
	Primarily full time per week		*Primarily part time per week*	
Number of weeks worked	*Number (thousands)*	*As percent of all families in category*	*Number (thousands)*	*As percent of all families in category*
Total	2, 255	5. 6	621	23. 8
50 to 52 weeks	1, 353	4. 0	221	19. 8
40 to 49 weeks	258	7. 6	49	13. 8
27 to 39 weeks	225	13. 9	56	21. 5
14 to 26 weeks	228	22. 2	119	30. 1
1 to 13 weeks	191	27. 2	176	36. 4

The incidence of poverty is particularly high among Negro families—29 percent in 1968, compared with 8 percent for white families. This difference is compounded by a number of interrelated factors. On the average, Negro families are larger than white ones, so that their financial needs tend to be greater. Yet the high proportion of Negro families headed by women is a deterrent to regular employment of the family head; only 54 percent of all Negro families, as contrasted with 68 percent of all white families, were headed by a year-round, full-time worker in 1968. Furthermore, the proportion of families below the poverty line is much higher for Negroes than whites, even when the head is employed full time, all year (14 percent compared with 3 percent in 1968). A sharp interracial difference in the incidence of poverty is evident at every level of weeks worked by the family head.

These findings on the work experience of poor family heads have important implications for policy development. For the many who are already workers, what is needed is a qualitative rather than a quantitative improvement in job opportunities—not merely more jobs but better and steadier ones, coupled with the training and other help required to qualify individuals for upgrading in employment. For the other large group not now in the labor force, the focus should be on removal of personal and family barriers to employment—notably health problems and physical handicaps and lack of child-care arrangements—followed by training and other services to increase employability.

FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN

Low-income families with children are a group of special concern from the viewpoint of child welfare and the physical and social development of the oncoming generation. They also constitute a large segment of the poor and low-income families (about 65 percent in 1968).

The new Family Assistance Program recommended by the Administration would apply only to low-income families with dependent children under 18. Though the target population to be aided by this bill cannot be identified precisely in the existing statistics, the characteristics and problems of the families whom it would benefit are closely approximated by those of the 4.8 million poor and low-income families with children under 18 in 1968.[8]

Some 3.0 million of these families were headed by men, compared with 1.8 million headed by women. The large majority (nearly 3.3 million) were white families; 1.5 million were Negro; only about 75,000 were of other races, including both American Indians and Asiatics.

The nature of the low-income problem in these families with children can be clearly seen in table

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[7] Detailed studies of men between the ages of 20 and 64 who were not in the labor force have shown conclusively that poor health and physical disabilities are by far the main reasons for nonparticipation in economic activity. See Vera C. Perella and Edward J. O'Boyle, "Work Plans of Men Not in the Labor Force, February 1967," a reprint from the *Monthly Labor Review*, August and September 1968, Special Labor Force Report No. 97.

[8] If the Family Assistance Program had been operational in 1968, there would have been an estimated 5.0 million eligible families. There is such a large overlap between the size and characteristics of these populations that for descriptive purposes they may be considered virtually identical.

2.[9] The men family heads, both white and Negro, were almost all workers. Three out of every 5 worked year round, full time and all but 7 percent were employed at some time during the year. Furthermore, for these men, inability to find jobs was the dominant reason for not working all year.

There were no really significant differences in work patterns between the white and Negro fathers except for a slightly higher incidence of unemployment among the latter. The dilemma in which these men are caught demonstrates again the compelling need to find solutions to the problem of the working poor—those who work as much as they can but earn too little to support their families adequately.

The situation of women heads of low-income families with children is quite different. About two-fifths of those with children under 18 did not work at all in 1968. Only a small minority—about 17 percent—worked full time, year round. Moreover, unemployment and disability were rarely the women's main reasons for not being fully employed; most were simply tied to their homes by family responsibilities.

That many of these women need work and want to work is indicated by the fact that over half of them were employed at some time during the year despite the presence of children in the family. However, if welfare caseloads are to be reduced significantly by enabling many more mothers to hold regular jobs, much more extensive child-care facilities will have to be provided.

This problem is entirely aside from that of overcoming the women's educational and skill deficiencies. Many who want to work cannot earn enough with their present skills to support their families; their full-time earnings might be less than they would receive in welfare payments, even without allowance for the costs incurred by going to work. In 1968, about half of the women heads of poor or low-income families had three or more children. For such women, jobs paying only the Federal minimum wage of $1.60 an hour, or even $2.00 an hour or more, may be unprofitable, depending on the welfare standards in their locality.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

The low level of education of most heads of poor families is indicative of the general problem of inadequate basic education, which demands—and

TABLE 2. WORK EXPERIENCE OF HEADS OF WHITE AND NEGRO FAMILIES BELOW LOW INCOME LEVEL, WITH CHILDREN UNDER 18 YEARS OF AGE, 1968 [1]

[Percent distribution]

Work experience	Families headed by men		Families headed by women	
	White	Negro	White	Negro
Total: Number (thousands)	2, 272	702	980	765
Percent	100	100	100	100
Worked year round full time	62	60	16	18
Worked part year or part time	31	33	39	40
Did not work at all	7	7	45	42
Worked less than 50 weeks: Percent	100	100	100	100
Main reason was:				
Unemployment	42	51	10	11
Disability	30	29	8	16
School	13	7	7	5
Other	15	13	75	68

[1] See footnote 1, table 1.

SOURCE: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, and Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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[9] Numbers of low-income families with children under 18, by race and by sex of the family head, were derived from Bureau of the Census tabulations from the March 1969 Current Population Survey. Work-experience data were estimated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from special tabulations.

is receiving—special remedial action in training and job placement programs for the poor. Nearly two-fifths of all poor family heads aged 25 and over, and nearly half of all poor Negro family heads, had completed less than 8 years of school as of March 1969. About a fourth of the family heads of all races, but only 18 percent of the Negroes, had completed high school. The figures for those who already had year-round full-time jobs indicated slightly more schooling than the average for all poor family heads, but this means, of course, that the educational attainment of family heads without regular jobs was even lower than the overall average.

The great majority of high school dropouts do, eventually, find jobs of some kind. Undoubtedly, their job hunt would be shorter and more fruitful were it not for the unnecessarily high educational requirements set for many low-skilled jobs. Nevertheless, the relationships between the amount of formal education a worker has, his access to more highly skilled occupations, and his earnings level show up in the poverty statistics. Of the families whose heads had completed less than 8 years of school, 25 percent were poor in 1968. For family heads with just 8 years of schooling, the incidence of poverty was cut in half (to 13 percent), and it continued downward with each rise in the level of education of the family head—to a rate of 2 percent for families headed by college graduates.

At every educational level, the poverty rate for families headed by year-round, full-time workers was about half that for all families. But the steady decline in the extent of poverty as the education of the family head rose was still apparent. The poverty rate ranged from 14 percent for fully employed family heads without an elementary school education to only 1 percent for those with college degrees.

OCCUPATIONS

The jobs held by the poor family heads are concentrated, as would be expected, in the low-skilled, low-paid occupations. In March 1969, about 67 out of every 100 poor family heads in civilian employment were in farm or service occupations or in laboring or semiskilled blue-collar jobs. This was a much higher proportion than among all family heads, of whom only 36 out of 100 were in occupations of these kinds.

The risk of poverty varies enormously among the different occupational groups. If a family head is employed in a white-collar occupation, or as a skilled craftsman, the chances that his family will have an income below the poverty line is about 1 in 33. If he held such a job and also worked year round full time, the probability of his family being poor is about 1 in 55. On the other hand, half of all families headed by domestic service workers were poor, as were 1 of every 3 farm laborers' families, and 1 out of every 5 families headed by farmers and farm managers.

MINIMUM WAGE STANDARDS AND FAMILY POVERTY

Private household workers, the occupational group with the highest incidence of poverty, have no minimum wage protections. They are excluded from the coverage of both Federal and State minimum wage laws. Farm laborers, the group with the second highest poverty rate, are covered by the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act only if employed on large farms and have a lower minimum wage than most nonfarm workers ($1.30 compared with $1.60). Even in jobs subject to the $1.60 minimum, there are many thousands of year-round, full-time workers whose family incomes are below the poverty line.

The question may be raised as to whether an increase in minimum wage standards and extension of their coverage would achieve reductions in poverty. A number of factors should be considered in this connection.

Foremost is the fact that, even if it were possible to extend coverage to all nonsupervisory wage and salary workers, over one-fourth of the working poor who are primarily self-employed, including a great many poor farmers, would not be reached. Furthermore, as has already been indicated, irregular work is the main source of poverty for many families, instead of—or in addition to—low wage rates. With a minimum wage as high as $2 per hour, a worker who heads a four-person nonfarm family would have needed close to 1,800 hours of work in 1968 to earn more than a poverty-level income. Yet only about 30 percent of all poor family heads had that much work in 1968.[10]

The large size of many poor families is another major problem. About 35 percent of all poor families, and over 40 percent of those headed by people under 65 years of age, have five or more members. Assuming at least 1,800 hours of work during the year, the head of a five-person nonfarm family would need $2.45 a hour to have annual earnings above the poverty threshold (at 1969 prices); the head of a six-person family would need $2.75 an hour, and the head of a seven-person family would need about $3.40 an hour. On the other hand, some family heads who earn less than the present $1.60 minimum wage already have total incomes above the poverty line, because of secondary earners or income from other sources.

Where warranted on economic grounds, a higher minimum wage with more extended coverage could help to raise the low earnings of many family heads and thus play an important part in the needed complex of antipoverty measures. Increases in the minimum wage are necessarily limited, however, by their potential effects on labor costs and employment opportunities. An increase in the minimum to any level likely to be possible in the foreseeable future would not, by itself, have a major effect in reducing the poverty population. Furthermore, as already pointed out, low pay is only one reason for poverty. Many poor family heads also need much more regular employment. And for some large families, the allowances for dependent children called for by the proposed Family Assistance Act could be the critical factor in enabling the family to move out of poverty.

SOURCES OF INCOME

How important are the earnings of secondary wage earners and income from sources other than earnings in helping families to move above the poverty line?

A much smaller proportion of poor families than of families at all income levels include more than one wage earner (25 percent compared with 54 percent, in 1968), confirming the presumption that multiple earners can be helpful in maintaining family income above the poverty line. However, it is also important who those earners are and, specifically, whether they include the husband. For example, in husband-wife families where the husband had earnings in 1968, only 5 percent of the families were poor; where he had no earnings, 24 percent were poor. From another perspective, among families of all types where the head was the only earner, just 10 percent were poor; but of those with two or more earners not including the family head, 18 percent were poor.

This situation, of course, reflects the much higher earnings levels of husbands than of wives. In families at all income levels, the median earnings figure for husbands in 1968 was about $7,500; for wives, it was about $2,800. Earlier studies have shown that in low-income families, wives with work experience contribute only 10 to 15 percent, on the average, to total family income. Working children also make a relatively small contribution to family income. For example among families with incomes in the $2,000- to $5,000-bracket in 1966, 70 percent of the teenage earners contributed less than 10 percent of their family's total income.

To summarize, in low-income families where the husband is present, there are often other earners, whose contribution helps to reduce the poverty gap or possibly to keep the family above the poverty line. But in the majority of cases, the income bracket and life style of a family headed by a man are determined largely by his employment status and earnings.

Poor families with women heads are caught in a quite different and more difficult situation. These families' main problem is that over 40 percent of them have no breadwinner. And families without wage earners which are headed by women have the highest incidence of poverty of any group; nearly 70 percent had incomes below the poverty line in 1968. Even among those that have an earner, about a fourth are poor. Their incomes are limited both by the low average earnings of their women heads and by the fact that very few families with women heads have more than one member who is old enough and sufficiently free from home responsibilities to go to work.

The very high proportion of women-headed families without earners who are in poverty testifies to the frequent inadequacy of payments from public income maintenance programs. The incidence of poverty is lower (30 percent) among

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[10] The poverty cutoffs for 1969 incomes are about 5 percent higher than in 1968, owing to changes in the Consumer Price Index. To yield an income above this higher poverty threshold with a minimum wage of $2 an hour would require nearly 1,900 hours of work.

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families with men heads too old or disabled to work, probably because more of such families are entitled to social security payments and fewer of them have dependent children. Nevertheless, 40 percent of all families (with both men and women heads) who had to rely entirely on unearned income were poor, compared with only 7 percent of those with some earnings.

When added to earnings, income from property, social security, or other sources, of course, helped to bring some family incomes above the poverty line. The proportion of families with both earnings and other income is much lower among the poor (33 percent) than the population generally (52 percent). But the number of families with a significant amount of tangible or intangible property is too small and the present levels of welfare payments too low in most localities for these sources of income to be a major escape route from poverty or near poverty, in the absence of income from work.

GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION

Poor families are disproportionately concentrated in the South. Nearly 50 percent of all families with incomes below the poverty threshold reside in this region, even though the proportion of families at all income levels living there is only 30 percent. Among Negro families, about 67 percent of the poor still live in the South, compared with about half of those at all income levels.

As these figures imply, the incidence of poverty is much higher in the South than in other regions (as shown in table 3). The differences are particularly great for families headed by year-round, full-time workers. The proportion of such families who were poor was 7 percent in the South in 1968—more than twice the corresponding figure for the North Central States and about three times that for the Northeast and the West. For Negro families, the situation is much worse than is suggested by these average figures for all races. In the South, 1 out of every 4 Negro family heads who worked full time throughout 1968 earned too little to bring his family's income above the poverty line, compared with only about 1 out of 20 in the Northeast and North Central States and less than 1 out of 30 in the West.

It must be emphasized that these data on interregional differences in the incidence of poverty do not take account of differences in living costs (except as these are allowed for by the 15 percentage point differential between the income standards for farm and nonfarm residents built into the poverty index). Thus, the indicated concentrations of poverty in the South may be somewhat less severe than the data imply. It is estimated that, in the spring of 1967, the cost of living in the South was about 8 to 10 percent less than in other parts of the country for an average four-person family on a low-cost budget.

Another significant finding is that only 29 percent of all poor families lived in the central cities of metropolitan areas in 1968, and that only 10 percent of all families in these cities were poor. The proportions were higher for Negro families; 45 percent of all poor Negro families live in the cities, and 23 percent of all Negro city families were poor. But the incidence of poverty is much higher, for both white and Negro families, outside metropolitan areas, and it is highest of all on farms.

Perhaps the most disturbing of all the figures on family poverty is the finding that 61 percent of all Negro families living on farms outside metropolitan areas—even of those headed by year-round, full-time workers—were below the poverty line in 1968. In contrast, only 8 to 9 percent of the fully employed Negro family heads in central cities or in suburban areas were poor. The incidence of poverty was much lower for white than for Negro families in all types of areas, but followed the same general pattern; it was much higher on farms than in cities. (See table 4.)

These comparisons of course relate to the city and farm populations as a whole. The average poverty rates for cities should be interpreted with particular caution, in view of the very wide differences in income levels between city neighborhoods, ranging from the most wealthy to extremely impoverished slums. The remainder of this chapter is concerned with the incidence and character of poverty, unemployment, and related problems in six poor urban areas—all target areas of the Department of Labor's Concentrated Employment Program, aimed at increasing the employability and employment of disadvantaged workers.

TABLE 3. POOR AND LOW-INCOME FAMILIES BY GEOGRAPHIC REGION, 1968 [1]

[Numbers in thousands]

Geographic region	Number of families				Percent of all families in region			
	Below low income level		Below poverty level		Below low income level		Below poverty level	
	All races	Negro	All races	Negro	All races	Negro	All races	Negro
Total	7, 395	1, 818	5, 047	1, 363	14. 6	39. 1	10. 0	29. 3
Northeast	1, 436	269	909	190	11. 6	27. 3	7. 3	19. 3
North Central	1, 632	283	1, 049	194	11. 4	29. 1	7. 3	19. 9
South	3, 350	1, 159	2, 435	911	22. 0	50. 0	16. 0	39. 3
West	977	107	654	68	11. 4	28. 8	7. 7	18. 3
Total families headed by year-round, full-time workers	2, 256	546	1, 353	356	6. 7	21. 8	4. 0	14. 2
Northeast	380	51	210	30	4. 5	9. 2	2. 5	5. 4
North Central	546	64	305	24	5. 5	12. 0	3. 1	4. 5
South	1, 093	415	709	295	11. 2	34. 2	7. 3	24. 3
West	237	16	130	6	4. 3	7. 8	2. 4	2. 9

[1] Families as of March 1969. Data exclude inmates of institutions. Except for data on year-round, full-time workers, this table includes members of the Armed Forces in the United States living off post or with their families on post.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4. POOR FAMILIES IN AND OUTSIDE METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1968 [1]

[Numbers in thousands]

Type of area	Number below poverty level		Percent below poverty level		Families headed by year-round, full-time workers			
					Number below poverty level		Percent below poverty level	
	All races	Negro	All races	Negro	All races	Negro	All races	Negro
Total	5, 047	1, 363	10. 0	29. 3	1, 353	356	4. 0	14. 2
Metropolitan areas	2, 477	777	7. 6	22. 8	544	167	2. 5	8. 6
Areas of 1,000,000 or more	1, 211	438	6. 9	20. 5	234	65	1. 9	5. 4
In central cities	748	358	9. 9	20. 7	125	45	2. 6	4. 7
Outside central cities	463	80	4. 6	19. 9	108	19	1. 5	7. 7
Areas of under 1,000,000	1, 266	339	8. 4	26. 7	312	102	3. 1	14. 0
In central cities	716	260	9. 9	25. 9	172	87	3. 7	14. 7
Outside central cities	550	79	7. 1	29. 8	139	16	2. 6	11. 6
Outside metropolitan areas	2, 570	586	14. 3	47. 1	809	188	7. 1	33. 1
Nonfarm	2, 108	492	13. 6	45. 2	537	145	5. 5	29. 1
Farm	462	94	19. 3	60. 6	270	43	16. 0	60. 6

[1] See footnote 1, table 3.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Employment and Income Problems in Urban Poverty Areas

Poverty and the problems which contribute to it—unemployment, irregular and seasonal work, low-paid jobs, sickness and disability, lack of education, broken families—converge in city slums. The incidence of poverty is even higher in rural areas, as indicated in the preceding section, but it is in the poor neighborhoods of large cities where the concentrations of poverty and related job problems are greatest and the contrasts between poverty and the surrounding affluence are most glaring and intolerable. And it is on the poverty problems of urban slums that the attention of the Nation has been focused since the Watts riots of 1965.

To provide detailed current information on the employment, income, and related problems of people in poor urban areas in different parts of the country, the Department of Labor in July 1968 initiated the Urban Employment Survey. This is conducted in the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP)[11] areas of six large cities—Atlanta, Chicago, Detroit, Houston, Los Angeles, and New York.[12]

The first results from the survey are yielding a more precise understanding of the sources of poverty and the barriers to employment among slum residents and how these differ from city to city—information of importance in developing more effective manpower programs. Additional data which will become available later in 1970 will yield further insights into the work attitudes and the employment potential of the people in these poverty areas. The initial findings for the July 1968–June 1969 period are summarized in following sections.

THE INCIDENCE OF POVERTY

Although 1969 was a year of economic well-being for the majority of Americans, a great many residents of the poverty areas surveyed—most of them black or Spanish American—were plagued by low incomes and high unemployment. They were concentrated in the least desirable occupations, which are not only low paid but often provide only intermittent work. In addition, many of the family breadwinners in these areas were women, whose earnings were even lower and employment problems more severe than those of the neighboring families headed by men. Furthermore, the proportion of men and women who were not in the labor force—mainly because of home responsibilities, health problems, or discouragement over job-finding prospects—was much higher in these areas than in the country generally.

The initial results of the Urban Employment Survey show very clearly the differences in employment and income problems among the six areas. Each had an incidence of poverty and a multiplicity of job-related problems that far exceeded those in more affluent areas of the Nation. However, the factors which were of top importance as a source of poverty differed from area to area; these specific problems and their relation to the high incidence of poverty are discussed below.

In all six areas, at least 1 out of every 5 families was poor—about three times the average incidence of poverty among all families in large metropolitan areas.[13] The proportion of families that were poor was highest, about 25 percent, in Atlanta and Houston, but not greatly lower in the other areas.[14] In Los Angeles, which had the lowest rate, about 20 percent of the families were poor. (See table 5.)

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[11] Concentrated Employment Program areas are target areas in which the Department of Labor has combined separate manpower programs in order to concentrate their impact in specific neighborhoods. See the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

[12] The new surveys are being conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics with the cooperation and financing of the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration. For a more detailed discussion on this program, see *Employment Situation in Poverty Areas of Six Cities, July 1968–June 1969* (Washington: Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, October 1969), BLS Report No. 370.

[13] The measurement of poverty described here differs somewhat from the measures used to define poverty nationally, described in the preceding section. Although the basic definition of poverty is the same as that used in the standard poverty index developed by the Social Security Administration, there are certain differences between the official national estimates of poverty, developed from the Current Population Survey, and the estimates provided here from the Urban Employment Survey (UES), which prevent complete comparability. The chief differences are: (1) The time periods—1968 annual income in the SSA definitions and July 1968–June 1969 income in the UES, and (2) the size of the income interval—exact dollar figures in the SSA index and interpolation of these exact dollar figures from the $500 intervals in the UES. For a more detailed discussion, see Howard Stambler, "Problems in Analyzing Urban Employment Survey Data," *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1969, pp. 51–54.

[14] It should be noted that the cost of living in these areas differs substantially, as shown by BLS annual budgets. See *Three Standards of Living for an Urban Family of Four Persons, Spring 1967* (Washington: Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, March 1969), BLS Bulletin No. 1570–5. In general, living costs are lower in the South than in other areas of the country.

TABLE 5. PERCENT OF FAMILIES AND UNRELATED INDIVIDUALS BELOW THE POVERTY LEVEL, IN LARGE METROPOLITAN AREAS AND POVERTY AREAS OF SIX CITIES, BY COLOR,[1] JULY 1968–JUNE 1969

Family status and color	Metropolitan areas of 1,000,000 or more	Poverty areas of—					
		Atlanta	Chicago	Detroit	Houston	Los Angeles	New York
FAMILIES AND UNRELATED INDIVIDUALS							
Total, all races	11.9	31.4	25.0	31.2	29.9	23.4	26.7
White	10.1	23.0	(2)	29.3	21.5	19.3	27.7
Spanish American	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	18.5	18.0	29.2
Negro	23.7	35.4	23.8	31.8	33.0	28.1	26.6
FAMILIES							
Total, all races	6.9	25.7	21.6	21.9	24.8	20.2	23.5
White	4.9	11.1	(2)	15.3	13.2	15.6	25.0
Spanish American	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	14.0	14.5	29.3
Negro	20.5	31.0	21.9	23.5	27.8	25.9	23.1
UNRELATED INDIVIDUALS							
Total, all races	27.2	43.8	35.4	41.6	38.1	34.2	31.6
White	26.3	40.0	(2)	37.8	34.5	30.2	33.5
Spanish American	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	33.3	31.0	29.0
Negro	31.7	45.1	30.4	44.2	41.9	35.1	31.5

[1] Data for Negroes include a relatively small number of members of other races.

[2] Percentage base not large enough to provide statistically reliable data.

There are major differences in the incidence of poverty among the different ethnic groups in the areas' population. The incidence of poverty among black families was almost double that for Spanish Americans in the Houston and Los Angeles areas, where Mexican Americans are the predominant Spanish American group. However, in the New York survey area, poverty was more widespread among Spanish Americans, mostly Puerto Ricans, than among blacks. These differences may reflect the fact that many Mexican Americans in Los Angeles and Houston have been in the area for generations, while most of the Puerto Ricans in New York came to the mainland United States fairly recently. In the two areas with large numbers of white families other than Spanish Americans (Atlanta and Detroit), the incidence of poverty was lower among these families than among the Negroes.

The extent of poverty among unrelated individuals—persons living alone or with people to whom they are not related—was very high. Even in the New York City area, where the proportion of unrelated individuals living in poverty was smallest, about one-third of these people were poor. In Atlanta, the proportion was more than two-fifths.

Unrelated individuals who were black were more likely to be poor than Spanish Americans or other whites. This was true even in the New York area, where black families were generally better off than Puerto Rican families.

Despite this widespread poverty, the areas surveyed are not populated entirely by the poor or the near poor. They are mixed areas including a significant number of people with moderate or high incomes. In Chicago, for example, 1 out of every 4 families had incomes over $10,000, and in Los Angeles and Detroit the proportion was 1 out of every 5. Even in the Atlanta and Houston areas, where the incidence of poverty was especially high, more than 10 percent of the families had incomes over $10,000.

The widely varied economic and social characteristics of people in poverty areas suggested by previous studies is thus confirmed by these surveys. There is economic strength and social stability in poverty areas, as well as much hardship and social disorganization. Both the positive and the negative aspects of the situation must be considered in policy development.[15]

ATLANTA

The poor neighborhoods of Atlanta had a higher incidence of poverty than those surveyed in any of the five other cities. About 1 out of every 4 families in the Atlanta survey area had incomes below the poverty line. Among unrelated individuals, the proportion who were poor was much higher still—2 out of every 5. Unrelated individuals represented about 3 out of every 10 household units there (including both families and themselves), compared with only 2 out of 10 in the country as a whole.

Negro families, who comprise about four-fifths of all families in the city's poverty districts, were nearly three times as likely to be poor as white families in the same general area. However, the proportions of Negro and of white unrelated individuals with incomes below the poverty line were about equally high.

Low weekly earnings, particularly among household heads, appear to be a major reason for the especially high incidence of poverty in this survey area (as shown in table 6). About 1 out of every 10 men household heads (who had full-time jobs) earned less than $65 a week, the equivalent of the current Federal minimum wage, assuming a 40-hour workweek. This was a higher proportion than in any other area surveyed. For women household heads, the situation was much worse; over half of those who were full-time workers earned under $65 a week. Since nearly half of all household heads in the area were women, their low earnings meant poverty for a great many families.

The very low earnings of workers in the poor districts of Atlanta partly reflect the relatively low-wage levels in the South, but they also stem from the kinds of jobs these workers held. In the city's survey area, the workers were concentrated in low-paying, low-status occupations to a greater extent than in the northern and western areas studied. About a third of the adult men were employed as nonfarm laborers or in service jobs (many of them low skilled). Over twice as large a proportion of the Negro as of the white men held such jobs.

The Negro women in the area were also concentrated in the least desirable occupations. About 2 out of 3 Negro women workers were in service occupations, mostly private household work—which is extremely low paid, offers few fringe benefits, and is likely to involve irregular employment. In contrast, most of the white women who were working had white-collar or operative jobs.

A very low level of education contributed to the inadequate earnings of the Atlanta slum residents and their concentration in low-skilled jobs. Four out of 10 area residents 18 years old and over had completed only 8 years or less of schooling; only 3 out of 10 were high school graduates.

In years of school completed, the white people in this area were no better off than the blacks—partly because they tended to be older, having completed their education when the general level of schooling was lower. Yet the white workers were much less concentrated in low-level occupations than the Negroes—a finding underscored by the comparability in their educational levels. Thus, the basic factors underlying these occupational differences are undoubtedly a long-established pattern of employment discrimination and a tradition of occupations "suitable" for the Negroes and for whites.

Although unemployment was not as severe in the Atlanta poverty area as in most other areas in the survey, it contributed to the high incidence of poverty. The unemployment rate for workers in the Atlanta target area averaged 8.6 percent from July 1968 through June 1969. Joblessness was more severe for Negroes than for whites, averaging 9.4 percent, compared to 5.3 percent for whites. The unemployment rate for women family breadwinners was especially high—at 8.2 percent, it was four times as high as for men household heads (2.2 percent). In addition, about 3 out of every 10 area teenagers were unemployed. (See table 7.)

CHICAGO

Unlike the poverty neighborhoods in other cities surveyed, the area of Chicago served by the

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[15] For a further discussion of this subject, see *1968 Manpower Report*, p. 85 ff.

TABLE 6. EDUCATION, OCCUPATION, AND INCOME IN POVERTY AREAS OF SIX CITIES, BY COLOR,[1] JULY 1968–JUNE 1969

Poverty area and color	Percent of population aged 18 and over with—		Men nonfarm laborers as percent of employed men aged 20 and over	Women service workers as percent of employed women aged 20 and over		Percent of household heads aged 16 to 64 earning less than $65 for full-time week		Percent of families with incomes—			Median family income
	8 years of school or less	12 years of school or more		All service workers	Private household workers	Men	Women	Under $3,000	Under $5,000	Over $10,000	
ATLANTA											
Total	41. 2	29. 3	17. 4	56. 0	27. 5	9. 0	54. 1	31. 7	50. 9	11. 6	$4, 900
Negro	40. 2	29. 4	20. 1	63. 5	32. 5	9. 2	58. 6	33. 3	54. 0	9. 2	4, 700
White	43. 5	29. 0	8. 0	21. 8	4. 5	------	16. 7	22. 4	38. 7	20. 4	6, 200
CHICAGO											
Total[2]	34. 7	31. 6	15. 0	24. 2	5. 5	4. 3	20. 0	18. 8	32. 1	25. 0	7, 200
DETROIT											
Total	38. 1	30. 0	15. 3	46. 2	14. 1	3. 9	25. 0	26. 8	39. 6	20. 1	6, 300
Negro	37. 3	28. 3	17. 2	52. 4	19. 0	2. 0	38. 1	27. 8	40. 8	19. 6	6, 200
White	39. 7	33. 7	11. 4	31. 0	1. 8	7. 7	36. 4	26. 2	39. 3	21. 4	6, 300
HOUSTON											
Total	40. 1	28. 6	20. 9	58. 8	27. 4	8. 4	69. 6	28. 9	47. 2	12. 0	5, 200
Negro	34. 9	32. 0	24. 5	68. 0	35. 0	7. 1	75. 0	35. 3	53. 2	9. 2	4, 700
Mexican American[3]	55. 4	13. 4	20. 9	34. 4	6. 4	7. 0	([4])	16. 7	36. 7	15. 0	6, 000
Other white	40. 5	33. 6	7. 8	30. 1	5. 2	8. 0	([4])	19. 5	34. 1	19. 5	6, 600
LOS ANGELES											
Total	37. 9	33. 5	11. 2	24. 5	8. 8	1. 8	15. 4	21. 8	37. 9	19. 9	6, 200
Negro	26. 9	42. 4	10. 5	37. 7	14. 8	------	16. 7	25. 4	44. 3	20. 5	5, 800
Mexican American[3]	45. 0	24. 0	12. 7	12. 8	3. 5	------	15. 4	17. 1	32. 5	19. 5	6, 500
Other white	35. 3	39. 2	4. 6	10. 5	1. 0	------	--------	26. 3	42. 1	21. 1	5, 750
NEW YORK[5]											
Total	37. 1	32. 7	7. 8	34. 3	13. 6	5. 5	15. 5	26. 7	43. 3	16. 4	5, 500
Negro	33. 7	35. 3	8. 7	41. 9	18. 2	4. 2	15. 6	26. 0	41. 8	17. 1	5, 750
Puerto Rican[3]	47. 0	19. 2	6. 2	12. 6	. 5	7. 2	18. 5	28. 8	49. 5	9. 7	5, 000
Other white	37. 6	40. 8	6. 8	13. 8	1. 1	6. 2	14. 3	26. 4	39. 3	23. 9	5, 600

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[1] Data for Negroes include a relatively small number of members of other races.

[2] Population in the Chicago CEP area is 96 percent Negro.

[3] Data are for Spanish Americans, most of whom are of Mexican origin in Houston and Los Angeles, but of Puerto Rican origin in New York.

[4] Percentage not shown in Houston where percentage base is below 1,000.

[5] The survey area in New York includes additional neighborhoods outside the CEP area.

Concentrated Employment Program has an almost exclusively Negro population. Approximately 22 percent of the families in this area reported incomes below the poverty line—an unduly high rate of poverty, but not as high as that found in most of the other cities.

Among the factors which tended to limit the incidence of poverty among Negro families in Chicago, the most important was a lower unemployment rate for Negroes than in most of the other cities. The average unemployment rate for men household heads was only 2.6 percent. And about

TABLE 7. UNEMPLOYMENT RATES AND LABOR FORCE STATUS IN POVERTY AREAS OF SIX CITIES, BY COLOR,[1] JULY 1968–JUNE 1969

Poverty area and color	Unemployment rate				Percent of household heads aged 20 to 64 who—				Percent of households with female heads
	Total	Men, 20 years and over	Women, 20 years and over	Teenagers, 16 to 19 years	Were not in the labor force		Did not work full time year round		
					Men	Women	Men	Women	
ATLANTA									
Total	8. 6	2. 9	9. 5	28. 6	9. 2	28. 6	27. 5	45. 7	43. 0
Negro	9. 4	3. 0	10. 0	29. 4	9. 3	27. 3	27. 3	49. 2	44. 7
White	5. 3	2. 6	6. 9	25. 0	8. 8	28. 6	28. 1	36. 4	38. 0
CHICAGO									
Total [2]	8. 6	4.[illegible]	7. 3	31. 1	7. 9	50. 5	18. 8	39. 2	38. 1
DETROIT									
Total	12. 2	6.[illegible]	12. 5	36. 4	13. 3	47. 7	37. 4	56. 2	35. 2
Negro	13. 5	5. 9	14. 2	40. 0	11. 9	51. 5	36. 1	57. 7	38. 0
White	9. 1	7. 8	7. 8	18. 2	16. 0	35. 5	40. 0	54. 5	29. 9
HOUSTON									
Total	8. 3	3. 5	8. 7	30. 2	7. 1	22. 8	27. 6	47. 0	33. 6
Negro	9. 5	4. 1	9. 7	37. 5	7. 2	20. 0	30. 3	47. 8	39. 0
Mexican American [3]	6. 5	1. 5	7. 4	20. 0	3. 6	37. 5	21. 8	50. 0	16. 4
Other white	5. 0	4. 2	3. 8	14. 3	11. 6	23. 1	30. 8	30. 0	31. 3
LOS ANGELES									
Total	10. 3	6. 2	8. 6	31. 8	11. 7	50. 6	25. 8	47. 9	34. 0
Negro	15. 2	10. 1	12. 9	45. 5	15. 6	56. 6	32. 3	56. 0	40. 5
Mexican American [3]	6. 1	4. 0	4. 9	15. 8	8. 9	40. 0	21. 4	36. 8	26. 9
Other white	7. 7	7. 1	--------	33. 3	8. 3	40. 0	20. 0	33. 3	35. 7
NEW YORK [4]									
Total	6. 8	5. 1	5. 4	25. 3	12. 5	47. 3	21. 0	38. 8	44. 8
Negro	6. 5	4. 8	5. 3	23. 1	12. 9	43. 4	22. 2	39. 5	49. 1
Puerto Rican [3]	9. 6	7. 0	6. 7	30. 4	11. 9	69. 9	18. 4	39. 5	35. 2
Other white	4. 5	2. 9	4. 1	25. 0	11. 6	37. 2	21. 0	31. 9	39. 8

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[1] Data for Negroes include a relatively small number of members of other races.

[2] Population in the Chicago CEP area is 96 percent Negro.

[3] Data are for Spanish Americans, most of whom are of Mexican origin in Houston and Los Angeles, but of Puerto Rican origin in New York.

[4] The survey area in New York includes additional neighborhoods outside the CEP area.

80 percent of the men household heads and 60 percent of the women worked year round, full time—a better record than in any of the other areas surveyed. In addition, the proportion of men household heads who were in the work force was higher than in most of the other areas—a fact of considerable importance in determining the family income level (as indicated earlier in this chapter).

The relative prosperity of many Negroes in the poverty neighborhoods of Chicago is indicated by their annual incomes. The median annual income for families in the survey area was $7,200, higher than that for either Negro or white families in any other area surveyed. The proportion of families with incomes above $10,000 was 25 percent—also above that for either whites or blacks in the other areas.

These relatively high income levels mean that poverty is only slightly more prevalent in the poor neighborhoods of Chicago than it is among Negro families in large cities throughout the Nation. Approximately 20 percent of the Negro families in cities of 1 million or more were poor in 1968, compared to about 22 percent in Chicago. Nevertheless, there were about 10,000 families—1 out of every 5—in the Chicago target area for whom poverty was a harsh reality.

In Chicago as elsewhere, poverty was a consequence of the many problems of joblessness, low education, and lack of skill faced, in varying degrees, by workers in all poverty areas. No single source of poverty was clearly predominant, but the proportions of workers unemployed, in low-paying jobs, or out of the labor force were all sharply higher in the Chicago survey than in the Nation as a whole.

DETROIT

One-fifth (22 percent) of the families in Detroit's poor neighborhoods had incomes below the poverty line. Nearly 1 out of every 4 Negro families was poor, compared with about 1 out of 7 white families.

Furthermore the incidence of poverty was particularly high among individuals, most of them men, not living in families. About 2 out of every 5 of these unrelated individuals were poor in the Detroit survey area, a higher proportion than in most of the other five cities. Here again, the incidence of poverty was greater among blacks (44 percent) than whites (38 percent).

These high poverty ratios for individuals not living with their families were a major factor in the total poverty situation in Detroit. Unrelated individuals comprised over two-fifths of all household units in the city's poverty area, a much higher proportion than in any other area studied. The high incidence of poverty among individuals, coupled with their large total number, raised the overall poverty rate above that for any other area surveyed except Atlanta. (See table 5.)

The chief source of poverty for both individuals and families in Detroit was apparently high unemployment. The unemployment rate for workers 16 years and over in the poverty area averaged 12 percent in the July 1968–June 1969 period, higher than in any of the other cities. The rate was especially high for black women and teenagers—14 and 40 percent, respectively.

A further indication of the severe unemployment situation in the city's poverty area is the low proportion of workers who had year-round, full-time work. In the predominantly black working population of the area, less than two-thirds of the men and less than half of the women who were household heads worked year round and full time—considerably lower proportions than in the other five cities.

The incidence of poverty in Detroit was compounded further by the relatively large proportion of men and women household heads who were not in the labor force—1 out of 8, and 1 out of 2, respectively. A good many of these people who were neither working nor looking for work (1 out of every 4) indicated that they nevertheless wanted a job. But there were formidable obstacles in the way. Among men, health problems were by far the most frequent reason for being out of the labor force, and health problems and family responsibilities were both major obstacles for women. Improved medical services and more child-care facilities—much needed in all the areas studied—would contribute particularly to the reduction of poverty in Detroit.

HOUSTON

The poverty ratio was higher for both families and unrelated individuals in the Houston survey area than in most of the other areas studied. About 1 out of 4 families and nearly 2 out of 5 unrelated individuals were poor. Furthermore, in Houston as in Detroit, the relative number of unrelated individuals in the population was unusually high (37 percent of all household units).

Nearly 30 percent of the Negro families were poor, twice the proportion for Mexican American[16] families. Among individuals not living with their families, the whites once again had a lower poverty rate than Negroes but the differential was much smaller.

Weekly earnings were particularly low in Houston's poverty neighborhoods, as in Atlanta. About 30 percent of all full-time workers in the area earned less than $65 a week—the equivalent of the Federal minimum wage, assuming a 40-hour workweek. Earnings were especially low for Negro women. Nearly 3 out of every 4 Negro women household heads who were employed full time earned less than $65 a week.

The low average earnings of the Negroes stemmed directly from their concentration in low-skilled, low-paid occupations. More than a third of Negro women workers were in private household jobs, and one-fourth of the Negro men were laborers; the proportions of Mexican Americans and other whites in these occupations were substantially smaller. Only about 25 percent of the Negroes worked in white-collar and skilled occupations; yet about 35 percent of the Spanish American workers and 55 percent of the other whites were in these occupations.

Unemployment also tended to reduce family incomes in the Houston poverty area, especially among Negroes. The unemployment rate was 8.3 percent in this area, far above the national average, though not as high as in most of the other poverty areas surveyed. The Negro workers had a significantly higher unemployment rate than the Mexican Americans. Yet in terms of education, Mexican Americans were the most disadvantaged group; over half of these people had no more than an eighth-grade education, compared with a third of the Negroes. These findings represent a reversal of the usual pattern of lower unemployment rates as educational levels rise; they are further evidence of the special problems of employment discrimination faced by Negroes.

For Mexican Americans, improvements in education, with emphasis on overcoming the language barriers for children as well as adults, are the key to economic progress. Many Mexican Americans who have succeeded in acquiring the needed education and skills have already escaped from poverty, as is evident from their incomes. The median annual family income for Mexican Americans in the Houston poverty area was $6,000, and about 1 out of every 6 had incomes over $10,000. These income figures were much above those for Negroes and only moderately below those for other whites[17] (as shown in table 6).

LOS ANGELES

Poverty was not as severe in East and South Central Los Angeles as in the other areas surveyed. Approximately 20 percent of the families in these neighborhoods had incomes below the poverty line, the lowest proportion for any of the six areas. Nevertheless, the proportion of families who were poor was double the national average.

The many Mexican Americans in the survey area had a relatively low poverty rate. Only about 15 percent of these families were poor, compared with nearly 26 percent of Negro families.

The comparatively high wage levels in Los Angeles have helped to reduce poverty there. Only about 2 percent of the men household heads and 15 percent of the women household heads with full-time jobs earned less than $65 a week, a much lower proportion than in any other area surveyed.

Offsetting the high wage levels, however, was a heavy incidence of unemployment, especially among Negroes. The unemployment rates for Negro men and women who were household heads were 7 and 16 percent, respectively—well above the corresponding rates for Mexican Americans in Los Angeles and also above those for household heads in any other area surveyed.

Unemployment was prevalent not only among Negro household heads but even more among other Negro workers. The overall unemployment rate for all Negro workers was over 15 percent. For teenagers, it was a shocking 46 percent. These rates were 2½ to three times the comparable figures for Mexican Americans in East and South Central

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[16] Data are for Spanish Americans, most of whom are of Mexican origin.

[17] For a further discussion of the problems of Mexican Americans and the special programs set up to meet their needs, see the chapter on Toward Equal Employment Opportunity.

Los Angeles, and generally above those for Negro workers in the other cities.

The extent of the unemployment problem facing Negroes in the Los Angeles area is indicated even more clearly by the weeks they were out of work during the year. About 3 out of every 10 Negro workers experienced some unemployment during the year, a larger proportion than in any of the other five areas except Detroit. More importantly, of those Negroes who were out of work during the year, 28 percent were unemployed for 15 weeks or more—a greater incidence of extended unemployment than in any other city.

Another critical problem was the large proportion of household heads neither working nor seeking work. Half of all the women household heads were not working, a proportion equaled only in the Chicago poverty area. When coupled with the fact that about a third of all households in the Los Angeles area were headed by women, the absence of such a large number from the labor force undoubtedly becomes a major source of poverty.

The barriers to employment for many of these women family heads could probably be overcome. About 2 out of every 5 of those not in the labor force wanted a job, but were barred from seeking one chiefly because of family responsibilities and poor health. Improved medical care and the provision of more adequate child day-care facilities would enable many women to seek jobs and, hopefully, benefit from the area's high wage levels.

NEW YORK

In the poverty neighborhoods of New York City, nearly 1 out of every 4 families was poor. The rate of family poverty was somewhat higher than in the other northern and western areas surveyed, though lower than in the poverty districts of Atlanta and Houston. However, the proportion of unrelated individuals who were poor was smaller in New York than in any of the other areas (for reasons which could not be determined from the initial data available when this report was prepared).

The poverty problem in New York is most acute among the city's Puerto Rican families. Nearly 30 percent of all such families in the survey area had incomes below the poverty line, a substantially higher figure than for Negroes (23 percent). The Puerto Rican workers were worse off than the Negroes both in extent of unemployment and in earnings levels. The unemployment rate for Puerto Rican men was 7 percent, compared with under 5 percent for Negro men; and there were parallel differences in the rates of joblessness among women and teenagers.

The earnings picture was much the same. Among the men household heads with full-time jobs, 7 percent of the Puerto Ricans but only 4 percent of the Negroes earned under $65 per week. Among women household heads, the proportion earning less than $65 for full-time work was 19 percent for Puerto Ricans and 16 percent for Negroes.

Another factor which contributed heavily to the poverty of both groups was the high proportion of households headed by women. Half of the black and more than a third of the Puerto Rican households had women heads. Yet 7 out of every 10 Puerto Rican women household heads and over 2 out of 5 Negroes were neither working nor looking for work. The significance of this situation from the viewpoint of family well-being can be judged from the finding (discussed earlier in this chapter) that regular employment of the family head is the chief escape route from poverty.

The economic plight of the Puerto Rican families in New York reflects, in part, difficulties in adjusting to a new way of life.[18] Many of these people are recent migrants to the mainland United States, who face serious language and cultural barriers. In addition, the average level of education among Puerto Ricans is very low. Nearly half of the men and women 18 years old and over had completed only 8 years of school, and only 1 out of 5 was a high school graduate. For these people, as for the Mexican Americans in the Southwest, more education—including instruction in English—is the first essential for progress toward a higher standard of living.

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[18] For a further discussion of the adjustment problems faced by Puerto Ricans, see the chapter on Toward Equal Employment Opportunity.

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INCOME MAINTENANCE AND WORK INCENTIVES

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INCOME MAINTENANCE AND WORK INCENTIVES

Income maintenance programs have two basic objectives—to relieve existing poverty and to prevent a lapse into poverty or a serious erosion of living standards for workers whose incomes are interrupted through no fault of their own. When the Social Security Act was passed 35 years ago, income maintenance was limited, for the most part, to local relief of destitution. But this act, born during the Great Depression, made giant strides toward a comprehensive Federal-State system of social welfare which would provide income protection for workers who lose their jobs and those too old for employment, as well as relief for the poor who are unable to work.

Both social insurance and public assistance approaches were built into the social security system. The unemployment insurance program—the only one addressed to the employable unemployed—provides benefits to qualified workers as a matter of earned right, as does the old-age insurance program. All other income maintenance authorized by the 1935 act is provided as public assistance, based on proven individual need and for specific categories of dependency, including dependent children whose fathers are dead, disabled, or absent from the family.

Subsequent modifications or additions to the social security system—for example, the addition of survivors' insurance and of insurance for the permanently and totally disabled to the old-age insurance program—have kept within the basic structure established in 1935. The only program established by the Social Security Act which is operated directly by the Federal Government, with uniform standards throughout the country, is old-age insurance and its adjuncts—now the Old-Age, Survivors, Disability, and Health Insurance (OASDHI) program. All other programs are State operated, with Federal financial assistance but limited Federal standards. The exact provisions of these programs and the adequacy of their benefits vary widely among the States.

Much of the controversy which surrounds these programs and the general subject of income maintenance reflects a conflict between two points of view. One assesses income maintenance programs in terms of the adequacy—or, more exactly, the inadequacy—of the income provided to recipients. The other sees income maintenance as a threat to the incentive to work—a matter of obvious concern in this country's work-centered economy and society.

The large new antipoverty programs of the past half dozen years and the increased public awareness of the extent of poverty—which led to these programs and was further stimulated by them—have focused attention increasingly on income maintenance arrangements. They have also intensified the controversy over benefit adequacy and work incentives.

Against the background of general prosperity and high employment, suspicion has grown that many income maintenance recipients could find jobs if they wanted to, but that they prefer a work-free existence as long as they can count on public support. On the other hand, the persistence of poverty, despite a flourishing economy and a wide range of income support programs, has generated growing dissatisfaction with a system which fails to provide any assistance at all for great numbers

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of the poor, particularly those who are regular workers, and inadequate assistance for most of those it does support.

Nowhere have the issues of benefit adequacy and work incentive asserted themselves so forcefully as in connection with the program of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). Referring to this program in a message to the Congress last August, the President said:

> A welfare system is a failure when it takes care of those who *can* take care of themselves, when it drastically varies payments in different areas, when it breaks up families, when it perpetuates a vicious cycle of dependency, when it strips human beings of their dignity.

This harsh indictment calls out for sweeping change. And the Administration has accordingly submitted to the Congress a proposed new Family Assistance Program which will, if authorized, represent a fundamentally new approach to income maintenance for the poor. A major aim is to assure all poor families with dependent children, including those in which the parents work, a basic minimum level of income support, which would be the same throughout the country. In return, employable parents would be expected to accept employment or job training, when suitable opportunities are provided. The new Family Assistance Program would replace the present AFDC program. Other federally aided social insurance and assistance programs would continue.

That the unemployment insurance system requires major improvements is recognized also. There is disappointment that this program fails to reach so many jobless workers and fails to provide adequate support to so many it does reach. Unemployment insurance also evokes criticism of both the work motivations of certain benefit recipients and the harshness with which some are disqualified, but these are peripheral concerns which should not be allowed to obscure real and important program deficiencies. The major shortcomings of the UI system are clearly the exclusion of a substantial segment of wage and salary employment, the inequitable distribution of the tax burden among covered employers, and the imposition by most State UI laws of an unrealistically low ceiling on the weekly benefit amount payable. The system also fails to take account of the special needs during periods of high unemployment.

To overcome major shortcomings, the Administration recommends Federal legislation, which would bring some presently excluded groups into the program, extend the duration of benefits in periods of high unemployment, achieve increased equality in the impact of the tax among covered employers by an increased wage base, and improve the determination of benefit eligibility. A bill providing for these changes was pending in the Congress at the beginning of 1970. The Administration also urges the States to raise the limits now imposed on weekly benefits—limits that work the most hardships against workers with the heaviest family responsibilities.

The unemployment insurance system and the needed improvements in it are discussed in more detail in the following section. The second part of the chapter deals with the broad question of welfare and work, with emphasis on the crisis which has developed in the AFDC program, the changes already made in an effort to strengthen this program, and the various approaches to more revolutionary change which have been suggested. Finally, there is a discussion of the Administration's conclusions on this subject, as embodied in the proposed Family Assistance Act.

A third major area of unmet need for income maintenance is more adequate income protection for workers who are temporarily disabled. The majority of workers injured on the job can look to the State workmen's compensation programs for benefits. However, the benefits provided are of widely varying adequacy and duration, depending on the provisions of the different State laws. One out of every 5 wage and salary workers and practically all the self-employed lack public income protection in case of work injury. In addition, the much larger numbers prevented from working each year because of temporary disabilities not connected with their jobs are covered by public insurance programs in only five States and Puerto Rico, and in the railroad industry.[1] The Department of Labor is studying the manifold problems involved in sickness and disability compensation, looking toward recommendations for strengthening worker protection in this area.

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[1] Disability benefits for railroad workers are provided by a Federal program that includes retirement and unemployment benefits as well.

For a discussion of present provisions for sickness and disability compensation and their limitations, see *1968 Manpower Report*, pp. 42–45.

Unemployment Insurance

> **Unemployment insurance is a major factor in stabilizing our economy, and an important aspect of manpower policy. It is the primary source of financial support during unemployment for wage earners who normally are employed. . . . By providing income maintenance as an earned right when the individual is losing wages, rather than as a handout based on need after he has exhausted his savings and liquidated his assets, the program maintains the individual's dignity and his position as a member of the labor force.**[2]

The billions paid in benefits over the years have ". . . added a stability to the national economy that has moderated, and on occasion perhaps even averted, economic recession."[3] In the prosperous year 1969, over $2 billion in benefits were paid to 4.2 million unemployed workers. But during the recession year 1961, 7.1 million UI claimants drew benefits totaling $3.4 billion. In addition, nearly $800 million in extended benefits were paid between April 1961 and June 1962, under the federally supported Temporary Extended Unemployment Compensation program in effect during that recession. Average weekly benefits were about a fourth lower in 1961 than 1968. If benefits had been at their present levels, these recession outlays would have been much larger still.

Nevertheless, unemployment insurance fails to serve its intended purpose completely either in aiding unemployed individuals or in bolstering the economy because of several major deficiencies in the program. Large groups of workers are excluded from UI coverage. The weekly cash benefits are inadequate in amount and too limited in duration. And there are serious problems connected with the statutory requirements for eligibility and disqualification, and their administration, and with the financing of the program.

Action to deal with these recognized deficiencies has been hampered by debates over Federal versus State responsibility, especially with respect to benefits. In 1969, the President supported State responsibility for benefit adequacy, but with a warning:

> **Up to now, the responsibility for determining benefit amounts has been the responsibility of the States. There are advantages in States having that freedom. However, the overriding consideration is that the objective of adequate benefits be achieved. I call upon the States to act within the next two years to meet this goal, thereby averting the need for Federal action.**

The President's message called for Federal legislation to extend coverage, provide extended duration in recession periods, strengthen financing, and make certain other improvements. These recommendations were embodied in H.R. 12625. After public hearings and executive sessions (which drew materially on intensive Congressional consideration of UI legislation in 1966) the House Ways and Means Committee reported out a revised bill, H.R. 14705, which was passed by the House of Representatives in November 1969. Senate consideration of the bill is anticipated early in 1970.

The major deficiencies in the coverage of the UI system and in the adequacy of benefits and the legislative action underway to meet these shortcomings are discussed in following sections. Also considered are some major problems with respect to determination of eligibility for benefits and the relation of this aspect of UI administration to work incentives.

While deficiencies and inequities in the provisions for financing UI benefits also cause serious difficulties, the system is not currently facing insolvency. The financial issues are complex, but since they do not relate directly to the issues of income maintenance and work incentives, they are not discussed in this chapter.

COVERAGE

Approximately 58 million jobs were covered by public unemployment insurance systems in 1968, including not only the State-Federal UI system but also the programs for railroad workers, Federal civilian employees, and ex-servicemen. However, nearly 17 million wage and salary jobs—close to a fourth of all jobs of this kind—were

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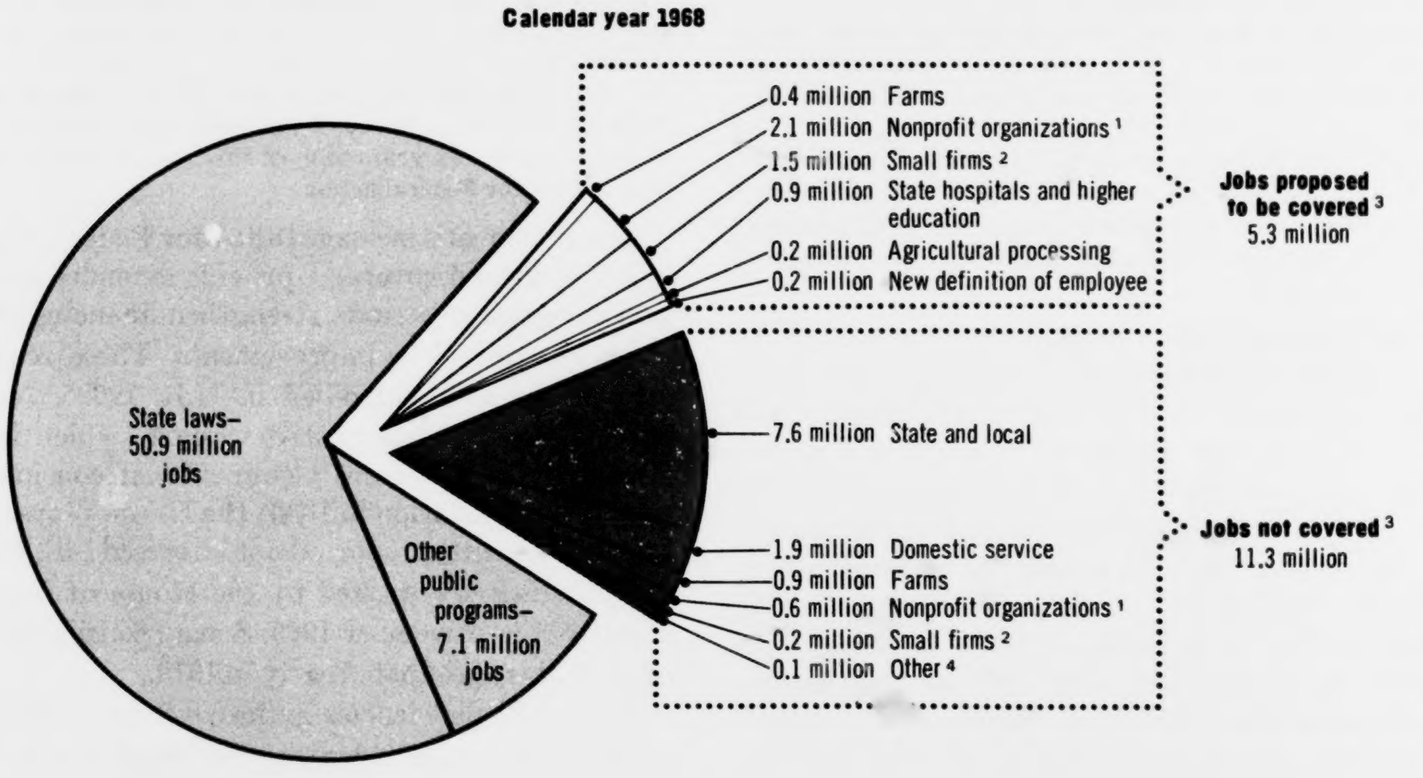
[2] Testimony of the Secretary of Labor before the House Ways and Means Committee on H.R. 12625, the Administration's unemployment insurance bill, Oct. 1, 1969.

[3] Report of the House Ways and Means Committee to accompany H.R. 14705, the Employment Security Amendments of 1969, p. 1.

CHART 18

Proposed new legislation would close about one-third of the present gap in unemployment insurance coverage.



[1] Excludes clergymen and members of religious orders, student nurses, interns, and students employed in schools where enrolled.

[2] Based on State unemployment insurance laws coverage provisions as of January 1, 1969.

[3] Reflects administration proposals in HR 12625.

[4] Excluded from coverage under definition of employee and agriculture.

Source: Department of Labor.

not covered by unemployment insurance. It has been estimated that, in an average week of the prosperous year 1967, 14 percent of all unemployed workers (about 400,000) failed to receive any benefits because they lacked UI coverage.[4]

About half the excluded jobs are in State and local governments. The others are mainly in four employment categories—domestic service, nonprofit organizations, farms and the processing of agricultural products, and very small firms (as shown in chart 18).

Under the Administration's proposals, about 5.3 million jobs in small firms, nonprofit organizations, State hospitals and institutions of higher education, and agricultural processing establishments and on large farms would be added to coverage. However, the House action would reduce the number to be covered to 4.5 million by eliminating the proposed extension to farmworkers, by excluding certain occupational categories in institutions of higher education, and by modifying the extension to small firms.

Opposition to UI coverage of farmworkers stems mainly from the fear that benefit costs would run very high. But other industries with high UI costs (for example, construction) have been covered since the beginning of the program. Most studies of the probable costs of farmworker coverage indicate that they would not be far out of line with those experienced in other high-cost industries.

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[4] *Unemployment and Income Security: Goals for the 1970's* (Kalamazoo, Mich.: The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, July 1969), p. 11.

Another argument raised against coverage of farmworkers is that the highly irregular and seasonal nature of much farm employment would pose problems of control over malingering and abuse, but this is not well founded. People who work for brief periods in seasonal farm jobs and have no other employment would not meet reasonable qualifying requirements. The other problems of eligibility presented by farmworkers are not significantly different from those groups already covered and can be dealt with by good administration.

The two major groups not now proposed for general UI coverage are State and local government employees and domestic service workers. Since State and local governments are a large and rapidly growing field of employment, lack of unemployment insurance protection for their employees becomes an increasingly significant defect in the program. Successful coverage of Federal civil service personnel since 1956 indicates no special problems in extending UI protection to Government workers.

Two States, New York and Hawaii, now cover domestic service workers in their UI programs. Their experience should be reviewed to determine the best means for encouraging unemployment insurance coverage for this group as soon and as widely as possible. Many domestic service workers are employed as regularly and have as close an attachment to particular jobs as is normal in most occupations. Workers employed by the day, however, may present serious problems because they are likely to work irregularly and to move in and out of the labor force.

Since many of the workers currently excluded from unemployment insurance have very low incomes, especially those in domestic service and farm jobs, the extension of coverage to all wage and salary workers would increase the contribution of unemployment insurance toward reducing poverty. The costs of the extended coverage might run high in some cases. However, a basic feature of the insurance approach is to spread costs broadly so that costs borne by any one individual or group are kept relatively low. Additional problems in the administration of eligibility requirements might be encountered, but they would not be insurmountable.

ADEQUACY OF THE WEEKLY BENEFIT AMOUNT

Weekly unemployment benefits should be high enough to prevent a severe cut in a worker's standard of living when he is between jobs, while at the same time preserving his incentive to find another job as quickly as possible. Present weekly benefit amounts are often too low to provide adequate support. This probably represents the UI program's most serious shortcoming.

A worker's standard of living—including fixed expenditures for housing and other items—is normally related to his wages. It has been generally accepted, therefore, that his benefits should be related to his usual wages, except that a ceiling is placed on the benefit amount to prevent a few highly paid individuals from receiving a disproportionate share of the program's resources. Ideally, at least 80 percent of all "insured workers"—those who can meet the wage or employment qualifications for benefit eligibility—should be entitled, if unemployed, to a weekly benefit of at least 50 percent of their usual weekly wages. Ordinarily, this goal would be met by a formula providing benefits equal to 50 percent of the individual's weekly wages up to a maximum weekly benefit representing two-thirds of the average weekly wage for all workers in covered employment in the State.

Except in those few States where weekly benefits are related to total annual wages, the State benefit formulas generally accept the principle of compensating for at least 50 percent of individual wage loss, up to the specified maximum. However, the State maximums set in dollar terms have lagged behind rising wages. In early 1970, the maximum basic weekly benefit represented half or more of the average weekly wage in covered employment in only 23 States, and two-thirds of the average in only one State. In 1939, all but two States had benefit maximums equal to 50 percent or more of the average weekly wage, and 22 States met the two-thirds standard.

Opposition to increasing maximum benefit amounts is often based on the alleged threat to work incentives. However, a benefit which represents only half of customary wages and is payable for only a limited period preserves a large financial motive for working. Workers in low-paid jobs actually receive benefits equal to

50 percent of their customary wages; those affected by the maximums are in the middle and higher wage brackets. Certainly there is no reasonable basis for concluding that a worker who normally earns, for example, $80 a week can receive a benefit equivalent to half his wages without weakening his incentive to work, while one who earns $120 a week (the national average wage in covered employment), and whose rent and other normal expenditures are based on that income, needs a relatively wider margin between benefits and earnings. Having to manage on half of one's normal income is hardly an incentive to avoid working, however high the unemployment benefit.

The key problem with respect to the weekly benefit amount is not maintaining work incentives but providing an adequate benefit. The broadest range of evidence on this subject comes from a 1961–62 study of unemployment insurance claimants in 13 States, including the five largest ones. In 1961, only two of these States had weekly benefit maximums high enough to permit workers with earnings equal to the average weekly wage in covered employment to receive a 50-percent rate of compensation. In 1969, among the same 13 States, there were still only two where this was true.

The proportion of claimants whose benefits were less than half their wages, primarily because of the low maximums, ranged from 50 to 78 percent among the States surveyed. Particularly striking was the impact on unemployed men. The great majority of male claimants in each of these States (as much as 85 to 88 percent in several) received weekly benefits equal to less than half their normal wages. Women claimants were far less affected by the maximums, because their wages tend to be much lower than men's. One of the best ways of insuring that the benefits paid to individual workers amount in most cases to half their previous wages would be, as already suggested, to set the maximum weekly benefit amount at two-thirds of the average weekly wage in covered employment. Had this recommended maximum been in effect in 1961–62, over 80 percent of all claimants—and about three-fourths or more of the men—would have received benefits equal to half their wages in the 13 States surveyed. In other words, the UI system would have operated more like the wage-related benefit system it is supposed to be.

More recent data confirm these patterns. For example, in New York in 1965, over half of all male UI beneficiaries had average weekly earnings more than twice as high as the maximum weekly benefit amount, even after an increase in this maximum late in the year, and so could not receive a 50-percent rate of compensation. In Ohio in 1968, 77 percent of the men claimants and 22 percent of the women received weekly benefits, including allowances for dependents, equal to less than half their average weekly wages.

Historically, the problem of unduly low benefit ceilings developed with the sharp and continuing rise in wage levels in the years following World War II. The States have been repeatedly urged to raise their maximums, and some improvement has occurred in the past two decades, but most of the lost ground has yet to be recovered. The present Administration is urging the States to act quickly on this problem to avoid the need for Federal action.

While the low maximums are clearly the chief barrier to adequate benefits for insured unemployed men, the standard which sets compensation at 50 percent of wages deserves reexamination also. Although recent detailed studies of benefit adequacy are not available, it appears that many families in which the sole or chief wage earner is unemployed would have a hard time meeting their expenses even if he received a 50-percent rate of compensation.[5] In the spring of 1969, an urban worker heading a four-person family needed a weekly wage of $126, assuming year-round, full-time employment, to support a low-cost standard of living. Were he to lose his job and draw a benefit of $63 per week, this would have been barely sufficient at 1969 prices to cover his family's food and housing costs (estimated at $61 per week, on the average), let alone other largely nondeferable expenses such as medical care, clothing, and transportation.[6]

Also of concern from the viewpoint of incentives to work are the benefit provisions dealing with partial unemployment. A claimant who is employed only part time for lack of work may be considered "partially unemployed" and eligible to receive a partial benefit. Provisions for partial benefits are intended to give workers an incentive to take whatever work is available by assuring that, if they work less than full time, the combination of wages and benefits will be larger than the amount of benefits for a week of total unemployment. But in most States the partial benefit formulas—which were devised in the 1930's—have deficiencies from the viewpoint of work incentives.[7]

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[5] Benefit adequacy studies of claimant family finances made during the 1950's demonstrated the significance to this question of the claimant's role in the household and the size of the family. See *UI and the Family Finances of the Unemployed* (Washington: Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security, July 1961), BES No. U-203.

[6] For a description of this low-cost living standard, see *Three Standards of Living for an Urban Family of Four Persons, Spring 1967* (Washington: Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, March 1969), BLS Bulletin No. 1570-5.

A recent study of this aspect of UI concluded that workers can and do adjust the amount of part-time work they perform so as to serve their interests under these benefit schedules.[8] Under these circumstances, States would be well advised to explore possible changes in their partial benefits schedules which might enhance the incentive to work.

DURATION OF BENEFITS

Unemployment insurance must provide income maintenance protection of sufficient duration to tide workers over temporary periods of unemployment between jobs if it is to meet its intended objectives. All States and the District of Columbia now pay benefits up to a maximum of 26 or more weeks in a 1-year period (the maximum in Puerto Rico is only 15 weeks). It is important to realize, however, that large numbers of claimants cannot qualify for as many as 26 weeks of benefits. There are only seven States in which all eligible claimants are entitled to benefits for as long as this. In other States, the weeks of benefits to which each worker is potentially entitled varies with the amount of employment or earnings he had in a specified "base period."

Even in the prosperous year 1969, these provisions had a sharp effect in curtailing compensation to unemployed workers. In that year, about 812,000 claimants remained jobless long enough to exhaust their benefit rights. This represented an exhaustion rate of about 20 percent. Furthermore, less than half the claimants who exhausted their benefit rights had received compensation for as long as 26 weeks, and 1 out of every 5 had drawn benefits for fewer than 15 weeks.

Recession periods reveal, in a stark and painful manner, the limitations of the duration provisions of State laws. As unemployment rose in 1958 and again in 1961, benefit exhaustions mounted to well over 2 million, and the exhaustion rate exceeded 30 percent (as shown in chart 19). Pressures for more adequate income support increased accordingly, and in both these recession years the Congress responded with emergency legislation to bring about temporary extensions of benefits. Extended benefits were available in only part of the country in 1958–59, but they were paid in every State in 1961–62.

Since that time, there have been proposals to establish a standby Federal program of extended benefits in recession periods to avoid the need for emergency legislation, which, in the past, has come a little late and involved hasty administrative and financing arrangements. The program proposed by the present Administration would be triggered by an average unemployment rate among workers covered by the UI program of 4.5 percent or more for 3 consecutive months. If such a national rise in unemployment occurred, the Federal Government would finance a 50-percent extension of the normal duration of State benefit periods, up to a combined maximum of 39 weeks of both regular and extended benefits.

The bill passed by the House in November 1969, however, provided for extension of benefits not only on a national basis but also in individual States when the unemployment rate exceeds a specified level in a given State. It also changed the proposed program from a wholly Federal one to a program financed 50 percent by State funds.

ELIGIBILITY AND DISQUALIFICATION PROVISIONS

The eligibility and disqualification provisions of State laws, including the provisions regarding the extent of past earnings or employment required to qualify for benefits, define the risk against which

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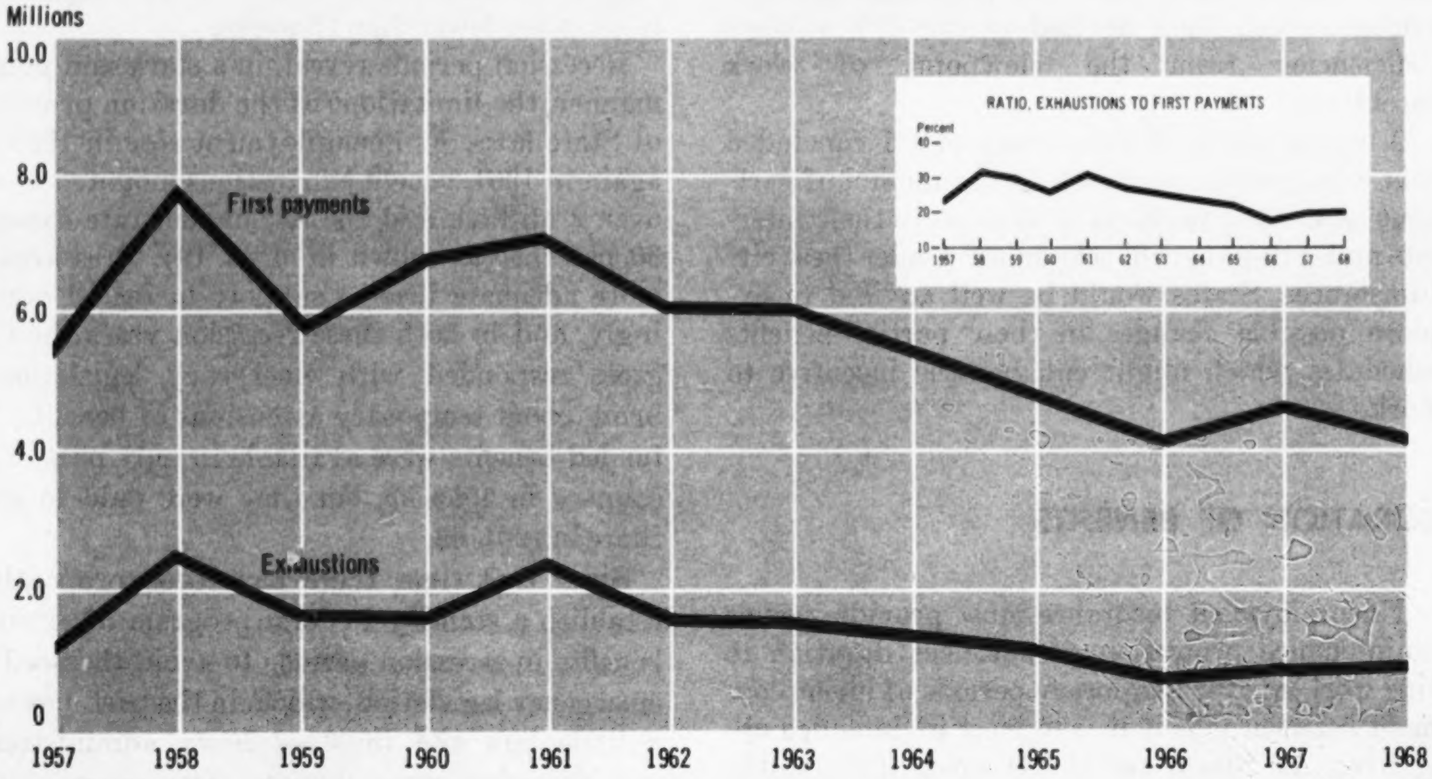
[7] Most State formulas disregard either a stated dollar amount of earnings ($5 in seven States, $10 in nine States, and amounts of $6 to $12 in 12 States) or a stated fraction of the weekly benefit amount (one-half in eight States and ranging from one-fifth to 100 percent in 10 others) in computing benefits for a week of partial unemployment. Only two States offset a fraction (one-fifth and one-third) of the wages against the benefits payable. Moreover, in the majority of States a worker is not "unemployed" for a week unless his earnings are less than his weekly benefit amount. In those States, the claimant who earns less than his weekly benefit amount has a higher total income than if his earnings had been just equal to his benefit amount.

[8] Raymond Munts, *Partial Benefit Schedules in Unemployment Insurance: Their Effects on Work Incentives* (Madison, Wisc.: Institute for Research on Poverty, University of Wisconsin, 1969), p. 1.

CHART 19

Benefit exhaustions were high in recession years 1958 and 1961 but are substantial even in prosperous years.



Note: Excludes programs of unemployment compensation for Federal employees, ex-servicemen, and railroad workers. First payments for 12 months ending June; prior to 1960, first payments for 12 months ending September.

Source: Department of Labor.

the UI program is intended to insure. These provisions are designed to limit benefit payments to regular members of the labor force who are involuntarily unemployed and who are ready, willing, and able to work.

The qualifying requirements provide a simple, objective way to eliminate from UI those who are not regular workers. They will fail to do this effectively, however, if set either too high or too low. Unrealistically low requirements with respect to previous employment can result in expending on marginal workers benefit resources which would be better used in financing adequate benefits for regular members of the labor force. Yet requirements should not be set so high as to exclude many regular workers who have recently had a hard time finding employment. In general, the requirements should neither qualify those individuals with fewer than 15 weeks of employment during a year-long base period nor exclude those with as many as 20 weeks of employment (or the equivalent in base-period earnings). The minimum qualifying equivalent in most State laws falls within this range.

The UI bill recommended by the Administration accordingly included a 15-week minimum requirement. However, this provision was omitted from the bill which passed the House, chiefly because of objections to imposing any Federal requirements on the benefit formulas. In terms of the numbers of individuals involved, the impact of the requirement probably would not have been large. While 22 States allow some claimants to qualify for benefits with less than 15 weeks of work or its equivalent, in most of them this is permitted only in specified situations.[9]

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[9] For example, in five States the only workers not required to have the equivalent of 15 weeks of work are those who earned 30 times the maximum weekly benefit amount in one quarter; such workers normally have significant work experience in other quarters, even though the formula does not require it.

After meeting the work-experience requirement, a claimant may still be denied benefits if he is not ready, willing, and able to work or if he quit his job without good cause or was discharged for misconduct. Other reasons for denying benefits include refusal of a suitable job offer and being on strike.

These additional conditions provide safeguards against malingering and lowered work incentive. In each of the last few years, nearly 2 million disqualifications were imposed, and questions raised about many other benefit claims which, after close scrutiny, were determined to be valid.

Since the amount of taxes employers have to pay under the UI system varies with the amount of compensated unemployment claimed by their former employees, employers have a financial incentive to raise questions about the claims filed, and they are given opportunity to do so. Furthermore, both the detailed legislative requirements regarding benefit eligibility and the methods used in administering them present an imposing and actively manned barrier to benefit abuse.

Indeed, concern that the UI program may be too quick and too harsh in denying benefits balances concern that it may award benefits too easily. The States have tended over the years to impose more elaborate statutory eligibility rules, thereby affording more grounds for disqualification. In addition, the disqualifications imposed have grown more severe. One provision of the new UI legislation, proposed by the Administration and accepted by the House, would prohibit (except in case of misconduct, fraud, or receipt of disqualifying income) a particularly extreme form of disqualification in effect under some State laws, involving cancellation of the "wage credits" (or base period earnings) on which a worker's entitlement to UI is based or the complete elimination of his benefit rights.

This change is designed merely to preserve some part of the "bank account" of UI benefits which an individual has earned and on which he can draw if otherwise eligible. It would allow benefit disqualifications to continue until the individual had been reemployed for at least some minimum period and had lost his job once more, for reasons which did not disqualify him from compensation.

Another problem involving both administrative difficulty and public misunderstanding relates to older workers, particularly those on pensions. There is a popular misconception that UI benefits are often paid to workers who retire, even if they have no intention of returning to the labor force.[10] Actually, all State laws prohibit payment of benefits for any week in which the individual involved was not an active member of the labor force. And voluntary retirement is subject to review with respect to availability for work in the same way as any other voluntary quit—a review likely to be more searching than in the case of a layoff for lack of work. Claimants who have retired from a previous job, like all others seeking UI benefits, must show their availability for employment by doing what a reasonable person who wanted a job would do to find one.[11]

Altogether, program experience indicates that the problems bearing on work incentive are relatively minor and manageable ones in unemployment insurance. Even in recession periods, the great majority of claimants are back at work before they have exhausted their benefit rights—testifying to their preference for jobs over benefits. In recent prosperous years, the average number of weeks of benefits per claimant has been no more than half the total number to which they were entitled. Short-term layoffs account for much of the insured unemployment in nonrecession years.

With so many claimants expecting recall to their jobs, administrative efforts can be concentrated on the unemployed workers who have no jobs in sight and on ways to assist their return to employment. About half the States now permit a UI claimant to continue drawing his benefits if he enters training with the approval of the unemployment compensation agency. The proposed amendments to the Federal law would require all States to continue benefits to claimants in approved training. The House-passed bill adopted this requirement, together with proposed improvements in the training of administrative personnel. These provisions should enable the unemployment insurance program to be more effective in an important area of responsibility—assisting claimants toward better reemployment prospects while confining the payment of benefits to those whose unemployment and consequent wage loss is truly involuntary.

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[10] See, for example, the editorial on "The Job of Unemployment Insurance," *Wall Street Journal*, Oct. 24, 1969, p. 20.

[11] The fact that some postexhaustion surveys reveal that some pensioners have left the labor force is not evidence of improper payment. It may merely indicate that the older worker had given up the struggle to find work.

Welfare and Work

> The present welfare system has failed us—it has fostered family breakup, has provided very little help in many States and has even deepened dependency by all too often making it more attractive to go on welfare than to go to work.
>
> I propose a new approach that will make it more attractive to go to work than to go on welfare, and will establish a nationwide minimum payment to dependent families with children.[12]

This statement by the President, in a message to Congress calling for a fundamentally new approach to public assistance, epitomizes both the goals of the new welfare system recommended by the Administration and the nature of the present welfare crisis which this system is designed to alleviate.

This country faces a most anomalous situation—a rapid and accelerating rise in the numbers of children and adults receiving assistance under the federally supported program of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), coincident with generally high and rising employment and also with continued widespread poverty. Despite great and increasing outlays for public assistance, millions of those aided do not receive sufficient assistance to lift them above the poverty line, and millions of "working poor" families receive no financial help at all.

The changing nature of the AFDC caseload is another source of public concern. Initially designed to aid primarily the children of prematurely deceased or disabled workers, the program now supports, for the most part, unmarried, deserted, divorced, or separated mothers and their children (as is shown in table 1). Especially in those States—about half of the total number—where families are not eligible for assistance if there is an unemployed father in the household, the program contributes to family disintegration.

THE MOUNTING AFDC CASELOAD

When the AFDC program was first established by the Social Security Act during the depths of the

TABLE 1. STATUS OF FATHER AND MOTHER IN AFDC FAMILIES, DECEMBER 1967

Status	Father		Mother	
	Number (thousands)	Percent distribution	Number (thousands)	Percent distribution
Total families	1,297	100.0	1,297	100.0
In home, total	236	18.2	1,187	91.5
Incapacitated	152	11.7	176	13.6
Employed	----------	----------	178	13.7
Unemployed	65	5.0	183	14.1
Needed as homemaker or to care for children	----------	----------	501	38.6
No marketable skills	----------	----------	149	11.5
Other	19	1.5	----------	----------
Not in home, total	990	76.3	75	5.8
Deserted	234	18.0	42	3.2
Divorced	174	13.4	----------	----------
Not married to mother	368	28.4	----------	----------
Separated	157	12.1	----------	----------
In prison or other institution	38	2.9	8	.6
Other	18	1.4	27	2.1
Dead	71	5.5	35	2.7

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Social Statistics.

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[12] Message of the President to the Congress, Aug. 11, 1969.

depression, it was expected that a maturing social insurance system and improved employment opportunities would reduce and eventually eliminate most of the need for welfare assistance. Some progress was actually made in this direction. The Survivors and Disability Insurance segments of the OASDHI program now cover most families with children whose fathers are dead or permanently disabled. In addition, expanded job opportunities for women during and after World War II enabled many widowed mothers to support themselves and their children.

During the first 15 postwar years, the sometimes expanding, sometimes contracting AFDC caseload testified to the ability of many families to be self-supporting when job opportunities were available and also to their increased need for help in recession periods. The number of new cases opened mounted when unemployment rose and fell when employment opportunities improved again. The close relationship between the size of the caseload and the general employment situation ended in the early 1960's, however (as is shown in chart 20). Between 1963 and mid-1969, as unemployment dropped to the lowest level in 15 years, the number of AFDC recipients rose by over two-thirds, from 3.9 million to 6.6 million, while the AFDC annual outlay (from both Federal and State funds) more than doubled, rising from $1.4 billion to $3.2 billion.

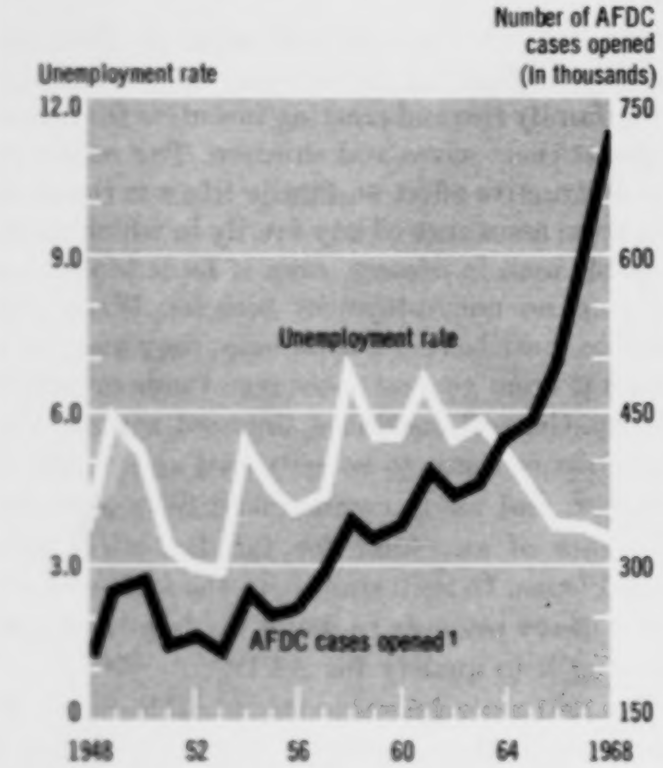
The reasons for this abrupt and disturbing divergence in trends are many and interlocking. The number of families eligible for AFDC was pushed upward by demographic factors. Higher assistance payments, especially in States with large urban populations, also contributed to the increase in the number of AFDC recipients. Because the higher payments were based on higher estimates of minimum financial need, they had the effect of making more families eligible for assistance, in addition to providing more adequate aid for all on the rolls.

The rapid expansion in the population groups from which most AFDC families come probably contributed still more to the rising caseload. Unmarried mothers accounted for about 40 percent of the caseload increase (according to data for 1961–67). Negro women aged 15–24, who accounted for over two-fifths of all illegitimate births, are one of the fastest growing population groups; the number in this age bracket increased by 50 percent between 1960 and 1969 and will go on rising sharply in the years ahead. Thus, the number of unmarried mothers will probably continue to increase, even though illegitimacy rates have been falling among Negroes. The population wave produced by the dramatic increase in births in 1947 and following years is affecting all aspects of society, not sparing the welfare rolls.

Along with the increase in the number of unmarried mothers and other family units eligible for AFDC, there has been a rise in the proportion of these families applying for assistance and also in the proportion of applications approved for payment. The reasons for these developments are not fully understood, but the increase in applicants certainly stems in part from the additional services made available to the poor under the Economic Opportunity Act. Families that were eligible for welfare, but for various reasons had never applied, became encouraged to file for assist-

CHART 20

AFDC caseload has mounted sharply since 1963, despite downtrend in unemployment.



[1] Does not include cases opened under a program of assistance to children whose fathers are present but unemployed, which commenced in some States in 1961.

Source: Department of Labor. Data on AFDC from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

ance. Factors that had previously inhibited application, such as the lack of information about eligibility rules and negative or unsympathetic administrative practices, were overcome by more positive attitudes on the part of many welfare agencies, the efforts of welfare rights organizations, and referrals by other agencies serving the poor.

The combined impact of these factors in adding new cases to the AFDC rolls has far outweighed the effect of employment expansion in helping previously eligible families to become self-supporting.[13] And the upward pressure on welfare rolls is likely to continue, for the demographic and social reasons discussed above, unless a great new effort is made to break the poverty cycle.

EFFORTS TO STRENGTHEN AFDC

In an effort to strengthen the AFDC program and meet mounting criticisms of it, several major amendments to the program were enacted by the Congress during the 1960's.

Aid for Families With Unemployed Parents

The first of these amendments, in 1961, was aimed at mitigating the effect of AFDC in weakening family ties and creating incentive for fathers to desert their wives and children. The reason for this destructive effect on family life was the exclusion from assistance of any family in which an employable man is present, even if he is jobless and drawing no unemployment benefits. When such families must have financial help, they may try to obtain it from general assistance funds or private charity. General assistance, financed without Federal support, tends to be restricted and uncertain, however, and many communities have no public assistance of any kind for families with "able-bodied" men. In such situations, the father may be under heavy pressure to desert his family, thereby allowing it to qualify for AFDC.

The 1961 amendments to the Social Security Act permitted States to provide federally supported aid to families with unemployed parents (AFDC–UP). Only about half of the States have as yet done so, however, and even in these States, Federal assistance is available only for payments to families of unemployed (or partially employed) fathers who have had prior work experience. The program still tends to discourage young men and women from marrying when children are conceived or born out of wedlock, especially if the men are unskilled and undereducated, and have little or no work experience and slight prospect of employment at family-supporting wages.

Work and Training Programs and Incentives

Though the inclusion of families with unemployed fathers in AFDC was an important step toward greater family stability and support, the possible weakening of work incentives for the men aroused lively concern. The new federally financed training programs for unemployed workers which began in 1962 were seen as a possible answer and have resulted in the occupational training and employment of many workers who were on public assistance. During fiscal 1969, the number of welfare recipients enrolled in work and training programs administered by the Department of Labor approximated 180,000, not including a large number of youth from welfare families in the Neighborhood Youth Corps summer program (about 100,000).

Information on the posttraining employment of enrollees who had been on public assistance is available for the relatively small number (about 12,000) who completed MDTA institutional training programs in fiscal 1967. The employment experience of this group was, not surprisingly, less favorable than the average experience of all MDTA trainees, but it was nevertheless encouraging, in view of their previous dependence on public support.

Fifty-nine percent of the men and 62 percent of the women formerly on assistance obtained employment following training, compared with 75 percent of all men and 69 percent of all women who completed MDTA courses in 1967. Occupations for which the men received training included welding, auto mechanics, and general machine operations, as well as agricultural work. The women were trained largely as licensed practical nurses, in clerical and sales occupations, and as nurse aides.

The statistics on the posttraining earnings of this group are also encouraging. Their straight-time hourly earnings after completing MDTA training averaged $1.86, well above the Federal minimum wage and only 10 cents behind the overall average for all MDTA graduates. Better than 40 percent were earning $2.00 or more an hour. Among Negroes and among women of all races, the former welfare recipients made about as much, on the average, as all workers who had completed MDTA training in fiscal 1967, as is shown by the following figures:

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[13] The total number of poor families in the country dropped greatly during the employment expansion of the past 9 years. However, most of the families who escaped from poverty were headed by employable men not generally eligible for AFDC. See the chapter on Employment and Poverty.

Trainee group	*Average hourly earnings*			
	Men	*Women*	*White*	*Negro*
All MDTA trainees	$2.27	$1.72	$2.07	$1.78
Former public assistance recipients	2.21	1.74	1.95	1.77

While some welfare recipients thus benefited from the regular manpower programs, work and training programs targeted specifically at public assistance clients were set up also, beginning in 1962.[14] These programs were quite limited in scope and funding and have now been superseded by the Work Incentive Program (WIN) authorized by the 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act.

By 1967, the mounting AFDC caseload and increasingly heavy assistance costs had brought great public criticism of the program. There was pressure to cut back and make the program more restrictive, particularly in the case of families of unmarried mothers or deserting fathers. There was pressure for stronger efforts to make welfare recipients go to work. There was also pressure to provide more adequate and equitable support for all the poor.

The Congress therefore took a number of steps to aid and encourage the employment of welfare recipients, including establishment of the new WIN Program designed to provide the training and other services required to break the cycle of poverty for AFDC clients. The WIN Program was in operation in 38 States and Trust Territories by the end of fiscal 1969 and is expected to be underway in all of them during fiscal 1970. The progress which is being made in implementing the program and its value as a prototype for still wider efforts to increase the employability and employment of welfare clients are discussed in a preceding chapter.[15]

It is too early for a comprehensive evaluation of the effectiveness of the WIN Program. However, survey results on the post-WIN work experience of 4,600 participants who completed the program in six States show median earnings of $2.27 per hour—$2.47 for men and $2.02 for women. Even taking account of the general upward trend in wages during the last 2 years, these figures indicate better results under the WIN Program than those cited previously for welfare recipients trained under the MDTA in fiscal 1967.

Another 1967 amendment to the Social Security Act was aimed at a serious defect of the AFDC program—its tendency to discourage work by welfare mothers. This disincentive effect was built into the program from the start. When aid to dependent children was initiated in the midst of the depression, the concern was to keep mothers at home with their children rather than to encourage their employment, and also to pare benefit costs as much as possible. Thus, each welfare family's affairs were checked carefully for wages or other income and, where such income was found, the welfare payment was usually reduced correspondingly. The result was a decided disincentive to work and a positive incentive to conceal earnings.

Even jobs that yielded earnings above assistance levels might be shunned by welfare mothers for several reasons. The jobs might be temporary, and difficulties and delays in returning to welfare rolls are all too likely. The costs associated with working—transportation, clothing, and other expenses—were additional restraining factors, to say nothing of the problems and costs of child care during the working mother's absence from home. That AFDC mothers have frequently taken jobs, nonetheless, suggests the preference many have for self-support. According to several studies, a large majority of welfare mothers had considerable work experience prior to application for assistance. This research also indicates that most mothers, including those with preschool-age children, expect and hope to return to work.[16]

A small start in meeting this total problem was made by the 1967 amendments. They required that, beginning no later than July 1969, all States must disregard the first $30 of monthly earnings and one-third of all earnings above that amount in computing a family's AFDC allowance.

The most controversial provision of the 1967 amendments was the "freeze" placed on the amount of Federal assistance for children who lack parental support because of the father's continued absence. The intent was to stimulate the States to greater effort to cut their caseloads through the WIN Program or in other ways. This provision was bitterly opposed by many State officials who were faced with limited State financial resources and also with increasing efforts by welfare rights organizations to help more eligible families qualify for assistance. At the request of the Administration, the Congress later postponed the effective date of the "freeze" and repealed it in June 1969.

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[14] For a discussion of these programs, see *1969 Manpower Report*, pp. 105–107.

[15] See the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

[16] For a discussion of the employment of AFDC mothers, see *1968 Manpower Report*, pp. 95–99; also Genevieve W. Carter, "The Employment Potential of AFDC Mothers," *Welfare in Review*, July–August 1968.

PROPOSED NEW PROGRAM APPROACHES

These recent legislative changes in the AFDC program should produce some mitigation of its problems and deficiencies. Much more sweeping change will be required, however, before there is hope of ending the welfare crisis—the paradox of mounting welfare caseloads, coexistent with a generally prosperous national economy and millions of children and adults still poor, frequently hungry, and receiving no public assistance or very inadequate aid.

The plans proposed for dealing with this critical situation have ranged from reform and retention of the existing welfare system to its replacement by a universal minimum income guarantee. The most far-reaching proposals would sweep away all current income maintenance programs, whether social insurance or public assistance. Instead, all families and individuals whose incomes fell below specified levels would receive payments from the Federal Government to cover all or a part of the shortfall.

The major types of proposals which preceded the Administration's Family Assistance Program were, in capsule, as follows.[17]

The Negative Income Tax

The "negative income tax" is probably the most well-known type of guaranteed income plan. As the name implies, this approach would use income tax returns as the vehicle for determining the income deficiency of a poor family and computing the income supplement it should receive from the Government.

The formulas suggested for use in this computation vary widely. One scheme would total a family's Federal income tax exemptions and minimum standard deductions ($3,000 for a family of four) and pay 50 percent of the difference between that amount and the family's income. The payment would equal $1,500 if the family had no income, and $500 if it had $2,000 in income.[18] Another scheme would designate an allowance of $1,600 for a four-person family ($400 per person), to be paid in full if there was no other income but to be reduced by a third of other income if there was any. Under this plan, the family would be able to receive some income supplementation as long as its other income was less than $4,800.[19]

Advocates of the negative income tax plan also vary widely in the treatment they would give to benefits received from other income maintenance programs. Their views range from the abolition of all or most of these programs to retention of them, but with some or all of the benefits counted as income for the purposes of the negative tax computation.

Advantages of the negative income tax approach are that it would utilize existing administrative machinery (though with a much higher workload level) and would reduce or eliminate the need for the current public assistance programs. It would also avoid the stigma of the means test and welfare investigations by accepting the family's statement of income on its tax return, as is now done for all taxpayers. And it would protect the incentive to work.

The negative income tax approach, however, faces an almost impossible problem in assuring both adequate income maintenance and adequate work incentives, at reasonable cost. A negative income tax plan which seeks to close all or nearly all of the poverty gap and also to allow for retention of a liberal proportion of earnings, thus preserving a strong work incentive, would cost many billions of dollars per year. To reduce costs, some sacrifice of income adequacy or work incentive or both becomes necessary. Furthermore, because of its universal approach, the negative income tax is unable to assure adequate relief for the neediest among the poor within reasonable cost limits. And it foregoes the possibility of relating the provision of income support to work and training programs, which could increase the employability of many poor people who are not now working or are able to obtain only low-paid, irregular employment.

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[17] For a useful review of the subject, see *Income Maintenance Programs*, Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Fiscal Policy of the Joint Economic Committee (Washington: 90th Cong., 2d sess., June 1968).

[18] Milton F. Friedman, *Capitalism and Freedom* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1963), pp. 190–192.

[19] James Tobin, "On Improving the Economic Status of the Negro," *Daedulus*, Fall 1965, pp. 878–98.

Children's Allowances

Another group of proposals calls for children's allowances, similar to those common in other Western countries. These allowances would be payable to all families with children, regardless of their income level; the total outlay would be extremely high.

One scheme, which proposes an allowance of $50 a month per child, estimates a total annual outlay of $42 billion.[20] However, the plan calls for including the allowance in the family's taxable income, ending tax exemption for children, and revising the income tax formula in other ways so as to recoup most of the allowances paid to families with adequate incomes. These measures would reduce the net annual cost of the plan to $12 billion.

Unlike the universal guaranteed income plans, these proposals focus on the children. Their advocates maintain that this priority is the correct one in long-term efforts to eliminate poverty. They also claim that the income guarantees would spread the limited available resources too thinly to provide adequate support for either adults or children.

Children's allowances, however, would require extensive changes in the income tax structure in order to keep the cost of the plan within reasonable bounds. There is also some question whether the income provided to poor families would be adequate and, if it were made so, whether the incentive to work would not be seriously weakened. Furthermore, efforts to assist families to become self-supporting through employment and training of their adult members would receive no particular attention or encouragement through the payment of children's allowances.

Welfare Reform

Less sweeping proposals have also been made which would not eliminate the public assistance system but would alter it substantially so as to remove its present inadequacies and inequities. The most prominent recommendations along these lines were those made by the Advisory Council on Public Welfare in 1966.[21]

The Council urged the creation of a single comprehensive public assistance program, in place of the existing battery of categorical programs. The new comprehensive program, which would be State administered, would make assistance payments and provide social services as a matter of right to everyone who needed them. Federal standards would govern assistance levels throughout the country, assuring everyone an adequate income floor, in place of the present extremely wide and inequitable differences in AFDC payments among States. No exclusions would be permitted on the basis of age, residency requirements, employment status, or employability; only need would determine eligibility. Federal grants would finance all costs above a specified State share.

Such reform would preserve the basic responsibility of the States for welfare and its administration, notwithstanding the proposed Federal standards. The extent and long duration of the current welfare crisis have raised serious questions as to whether any welfare reform could command public support unless it involved a sharp break with the existing, generally discredited welfare system.

SOME CRITICAL ISSUES

The key issues which must be faced in planning and weighing new income maintenance approaches revolve around the basic problem of reconciling adequate income support with encouragement of work.

Work Incentives

All the proposed guaranteed income schemes are concerned with the work incentive issue. They all have some feature that would make working more profitable than relying on assistance payments alone.

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[20] Harvey E. Brazer, "Tax Policy and Children's Allowances," *Income Maintenance Programs*, vol. II, pp. 575–81.

[21] *Having the Power, We Have the Duty*, Report of the Advisory Council on Public Welfare to the Secretary (Washington: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, June 1966).

There is a caveat about this that needs to be borne in mind, however. All the plans would provide basic income support levels for families and individuals who are totally without income. Though the support levels suggested are usually quite low relative to the poverty line, some people might settle for even these small incomes and not try to supplement them through work. The number likely to refrain from working would depend heavily on the kinds of work available to them and how much of their earnings they would be allowed to retain (without offsetting deductions from their income supplements).

Hard, disagreeable, dead end work offering only a small net gain may prove less appealing to many welfare clients than no work. The reluctance of the welfare mother to leave her preschool-age children to take such a job is an understandable and rational reaction; requiring her to do so would be a policy hard to apply and enforce. Encouraging her to work in expectation of a substantially higher total income is quite another matter, however.

The work incentives built into the AFDC system by the 1967 amendments involve both the stimulus of potentially higher income and some compulsion. When members of AFDC families work, they may retain a significant part of their earnings, as already indicated, and individuals entering training under the WIN Program receive $30 a month in addition to their regular AFDC allowance. There is also a provision for termination of aid to adults referred to WIN training or work projects who refuse to participate without good cause, though assistance to their dependent children is not interrupted.

Child Care

Work incentives do little for the welfare mother if she has no satisfactory and reliable arrangement for her children while she is in training or at work. Yet decent child care is scarce and usually well beyond her means.

Adequate child-care arrangements are a basic feature of the WIN Program, but they have proved to be very hard to provide. In fact, the lack of satisfactory day care has been a major factor inhibiting the growth in WIN enrollments, and also causing mothers to drop out of training when makeshift arrangements for their children's care broke down.[22]

To enable large numbers of mothers to move permanently from welfare to work, greatly increased national financing of day-care services will be essential. If these day-care facilities are of high quality, they will not only release mothers for work but give them added incentives to take jobs because of the advantages afforded to their children. Finally, there is the promise of longer run rewards to society, in that the children may obtain educational, health, and other benefits which they are not likely to receive in poor homes.

Work Requirements

Most assistance recipients who are able to work will welcome the opportunity to do so, given reasonable monetary incentives, satisfactory job and training opportunities, and decent child-care arrangements. The large numbers of welfare mothers who have volunteered for the WIN Program support this conclusion, as do the considerable number who have worked in the past under less favorable conditions. On the other hand, work requirements may be necessary in marginal cases, and they would help to establish a new emphasis on work in connection with assistance.

Strong work requirements can also be important in achieving acceptance of a truly adequate new assistance plan, in view of the present public concern about the numbers of people on the welfare rolls and the possible unwillingness of some to work. Such requirements would be needed to insure—both in fact and in public understanding—that more adequate benefits and extension of public financial aid to groups not now covered, notably the working poor, would not undermine incentives to work.

Assistance to the Working Poor

By far the largest gap in assistance to this country's poor children is the absence of aid to those whose fathers are working but cannot earn enough to lift the family out of poverty. In 1968 there were 10.6 million children in households classed as poor. During that year, the number of children on AFDC averaged 4.3 million; in late 1969, the number was about 5 million. Undoubtedly most of those excluded had working fathers, though some were in fatherless families which were managing to survive on the earnings of the mother or some other family member.

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[22] For a further discussion of this problem, see the section on the Work Incentive Program in the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

To exclude the working poor from improved public assistance would only enlarge present inequities and pose a greater threat to family stability. Though assistance payments are generally below the poverty threshold for a family of any given size, large families receive more from AFDC in many States than most unskilled women and many unskilled men can earn. Furthermore, where the mother is able to get some work, families on AFDC may have a wider income advantage (under the 1967 provisions with respect to retention of earnings).

The temptation for a marginal worker to desert his family, whether in truth or pretense, so that it can go on AFDC is real and increasing, and the number of families subject to such a strain is substantial. In 1968, about 1.6 million poor families were headed by year-round workers, four-fifths of whom were men, and another 1.3 million heads of poor families worked part of the year.

The broader income support schemes proposed would all include the working poor, thus eliminating the incentive for family breakup inherent in the AFDC program. But the possible effects of the plans on the work incentives of the present working poor warrant consideration. Unfortunately, the studies so far available on this subject have had to rely on simulated rather than actual data regarding the effects of assistance payments on work and are not conclusive.

For example, one analysis of State and local general assistance payments correlated interstate variations in the proportion of the population receiving general assistance with variations in payment levels and in unemployment rates. The study concluded that almost half of the recipients could have worked, or could have worked more, as an alternative to assistance.[23] Yet, another analysis of the same data, using other independent variables, contradicted this conclusion.[24]

Research which measures the impact of assistance payments on work effort under real rather than simulated conditions would be more desirable. Some studies of this type are now in progress under the sponsorship of the Office of Economic Opportunity. The Graduated Work Incentive Experiment, for example, is measuring the work incentive effects of varying levels of guaranteed income support and of varying rates of taxation of earnings, for samples of poor families in a number of urban areas in New Jersey and Pennsylvania. Similar studies of rural families in Iowa and North Carolina have been started recently.

Until the results of this research become available, the best basis for judging the effects of different income maintenance plans on work incentives is knowledge of their provisions and how these will be administered. At least in plans including a work requirement, any substantial shift from work to nonwork status in expectation of income subsidies seems improbable. The beneficiaries of such plans would be subject to a job test, as are unemployment insurance claimants, and they would not be likely to escape referrals to work.

THE FAMILY ASSISTANCE PROGRAM

The new Family Assistance Program (FAP) proposed by the Administration—and embodied in the Family Assistance Act now before the Congress—seeks a sharp break with the past. Its chief objective is a new approach to family assistance, free of the strains of past failures and inequities.

In developing a new assistance plan, the constraint of limited Federal funds required a choice of emphasis among improved assistance levels, fiscal relief for the States, and basic structural reform of the welfare system. The Family Assistance Program involves a blend of all three objectives but with the chief emphasis on structural reform.

The FAP would provide assistance to all families with dependent children under 18 whose incomes are below specified minimums, including the working poor. Altogether, an estimated 5 million families, including 9 million adults and 16 million children, would receive some assistance under FAP. The new program would completely replace the present federally assisted AFDC program. The other categorical assistance programs applying to adults would be combined into a single program for the aged (65 and over), the blind, and the disabled (including the temporarily and severely disabled—a liberalization of the present program, which is restricted to the permanently and totally disabled). There would be greater Federal financial participation in this program, and the States would be required to make payments which would, in addition to other income, assure a recipient at least $90 a month.

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[23] C. T. Brehm and T. R. Saving, "The Demand for General Assistance Payments," *American Economic Review*, December 1964, pp. 1002–1018.

[24] Hirschel Kasper, "Welfare Payments and Work Incentives: Some Determinants of the Rates of General Assistance Payments," *The Journal of Human Resources*, Winter 1968, pp. 86–110.

Benefits and Work Incentives

The FAP provides for basic Federal assistance payments to families, and for supplemental payments by the States, where current AFDC payment levels exceed the FAP levels. Uniform rules would govern eligibility for Federal assistance throughout the country.

A family with no income would qualify for a basic Federal allowance of $500 per year for each of its first two members and $300 for each additional member. The family would also be able to buy food stamps which, for a family of four, could amount to an effective net increase in its spending power of up to about $870 a year. Added to the family's basic FAP allowance of $1,600, this would make a total effective income of about $2,470 from the Federal Government alone—slightly over two-thirds of the income needed to bring a family of four above the poverty line.

In most States, AFDC assistance levels exceed the proposed basic FAP allowances. These States would be required to supplement FAP benefits for families eligible under their present rules as modified by the act, though not for the working poor. In this way, no family would be worse off under the new plan. All assisted families with working adults would be better off.

The basic stress of the Family Assistance Program is on work. Both work incentives and work requirements would be provided.

All adult recipients except mothers of very young children and certain other specified groups (discussed later) would be required to register for suitable employment or training. To permit employment of mothers, a large expansion of subsidized child care is planned.

The benefit provisions of the plan have been carefully designed to insure that working is always more profitable for families than not working. The first $720 earned each year ($60 per month) and half the earnings above this amount would be disregarded in computing FAP benefits. A family of four would receive some benefits until its total income, with certain exclusions, reached $3,920 a year.

The "disregard" of $60 per month represents an allowance for the costs of going to work—clothing, transportation, and occupational and other expenses, as measured by various studies. In effect, this "disregard" makes the offset against earnings considerably less than 50 percent, overall, for workers at low earnings levels, thereby yielding a stronger work incentive where most needed.

Work and Training Provisions

All adult recipients of FAP benefits, with some specific statutory exceptions, would be required to register with the State employment service for employment, training, and other manpower services. The exceptions include mothers of preschool-age children (under 6); mothers of older children, if the father or another adult is present in the family and registered with the employment service or working full time; sick or disabled people; those caring for a sick or disabled family member; and those already working full time. Family members not required to register would be permitted to do so voluntarily. Of the approximately 9 million adults who would receive some assistance under FAP, about 1.1 million would be required to register.

If an adult family member not in the excepted groups fails to register or refuses, without good cause, to accept a suitable job offer or to participate in suitable training and related manpower activities, he would be denied benefits under FAP. However, benefits would continue to the rest of the family.

An "employability plan" would be prepared for each adult registered with the employment service, covering his vocational problems and needs and the steps required to help him become self-supporting. If he entered training, he would receive an extra $30 per month, as under WIN (or a higher amount if the program to which he is referred provides higher allowances). Travel and other related training expenses would be covered.

As under WIN, the full resources of the existing manpower programs and welfare services would be applied to aid individuals in carrying through their employability plans. The proposals call for substantially more training opportunities for welfare recipients and also for more skill upgrading for the working poor. The reorganization and improvements proposed by the Administration for the manpower training programs would be vital factors in assuring the success of these plans.

Suitable Work

Few refusals to participate in training or accept jobs are anticipated. The greater problem would probably be that the demand for job referrals, training, and other services would exceed the available supply. Nevertheless, the question of what constitutes "suitable work" and "good cause" for refusals would have to be faced in administering the work requirement and benefit denial provisions.

The long experience in administration of unemployment insurance offers valuable guidance on these matters. There are important differences, however, which would need consideration.

Welfare recipients, as a group, have had much less work experience than UI claimants. Some have never worked and others—probably a much larger number—have worked only irregularly and in low-skilled, casual jobs. Consequently, determination of the jobs "suitable" for this group cannot rely as much on past employment and job skills as is customary in UI administration. Fears have been expressed that many unskilled welfare recipients would be forced into unattractive, low-wage, dead end jobs, but this would be contrary to Administration policy. The prime objective of FAP is to raise welfare recipients completely and permanently out of dependency. Therefore, efforts will be made to secure the best jobs available for them.

Standards such as statutory minimum wages, prevailing wage rates, equal employment rules, and working conditions consistent with health and decency would, of course, apply. But only experience accumulated by adjudicating individual cases can develop standards of suitability adapted to this group's unique problems. One advantage under FAP would be the development and application of a uniform set of Federal standards, which would forestall the possibility of inequitable State variations.

THE REALITIES OF WELFARE REFORM

The recent recommendations of the President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs, appointed in January 1968, parallel the proposals of the Administration in many respects. Those recommendations, for example, would abolish AFDC and establish a system of Federal assistance benefits for the poor, including the working poor. They would also provide an incentive to work by offsetting only 50 percent of earnings against benefits, although without a "disregard" to cover the costs of working.

The basic assistance allowances recommended by the Commission are higher than FAP benefit levels, but they are less than the combined value of FAP assistance and food stamps, which the Commission ruled out. The Administration has announced its desire to transfer the Food Stamp program to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare when the proposed Family Assistance Program is operative and eventually to convert entirely to cash assistance.

Other major differences are, first, that the Commission would abolish all the present categorical aid programs and extend Federal assistance benefits to all the poor, including adults with no children; second, that it would not require the States to supplement Federal benefits if they are less than present State support levels, although the hope is expressed that the States would do so; and third, that it would not require recipients to register for work and training.[25]

The Administration's plan might have provided higher benefits. It might have applied to all poor adults. However, within the limitations of tight Federal budgeting, choices had to be made Those decided upon reflect, in addition to structural reforms in the welfare program, an emphasis on aid to children and on increased opportunity for self-support. These priorities look to the future. Resources invested in adequate support of children and in moving the poor into employment or better jobs should yield savings in social welfare costs in the years ahead and, at the same time, add to the Nation's productive manpower resources.

That the best path out of dependency runs through work is hardly debatable. Yet, to the ghetto poor in particular, if work means demeaning, low-paid jobs with no prospects for a life beyond the edges of poverty, the choice will not be attractive. It will be important to the success of

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[25] *Poverty Amid Plenty: The American Paradox*, Report of the President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs, Nov. 12, 1969.

WIN—or of the Family Assistance Program, if adopted—that the employment road opens the way to a better future than disagreeable, dead end work.

How large a proportion of welfare recipients will be able to escape poverty permanently and completely through training and work is not certain. Recent research directed at evaluation of the employability and earnings potential of welfare mothers suggests a cautious outlook. One study indicated, for example, that lack of education and job skills would prevent most of these mothers from achieving total self-support even if fully employed year round at jobs they were capable of filling.[26] Another study suggested that many other obstacles, besides poor education and low skills, may combine to block the way to economic independence for both welfare mothers and welfare fathers.[27]

Moreover, experience under the earlier work and training programs for welfare recipients indicates that the transition from dependency to self-support was, for many who made the attempt, difficult and incomplete. The basic point is that training can be a significant tool for reducing dependence on welfare, but it cannot by itself do the whole job, and it will not always work for all people.

Those currently on public assistance who could take the road to employment certainly must be shown the way and equipped with the skills they need to travel it. Since an individual's employment potential is not always clearly revealed before an effort is made to develop it, such an effort should be made in all possible as well as probable cases. But "success" will be neither instant nor universal, whether through AFDC, supplemented by an expanding WIN Program, or through the proposed Family Assistance Program. Large—though hopefully diminishing—numbers of people will probably continue to depend on public assistance for a long time. It is of great importance, therefore, to take the long view which the Administration has chosen and to devote efforts and resources not only to cultivating the employment potential of dependent adults but also to giving their children the education, health care, and other help they will need to achieve a better future.

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[26] Leonard J. Hausman, "The Welfare Tax Rate," *Trans-Action,* April 1969, pp. 48–53.

[27] Martin Warren and Sheldon Berkowitz, "A Pilot Study of AFDC Employability," California Department of Social Welfare, Research and Statistics Division, Preliminary Report, September 1968. The study examined the employment potential of a small sample of AFDC parents by applying the judgment of a multidisciplinary team of professional welfare, employment, and medical technicians. Though the emphasis was on methodology, the findings suggest the severity of the problems to be faced in moving welfare recipients from dependency to self-support.

7

MANPOWER DEMAND AND SUPPLY IN PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS

MANPOWER DEMAND AND SUPPLY IN PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS

The manpower demand-and-supply situation in the professions has entered a period of rapid change. Employment requirements will continue to rise faster in professional and technical occupations than in any other major occupational group during the foreseeable future, as they have in recent decades. But the supply of college-educated personnel—the chief source of professional manpower—is mounting to unprecedented levels.

The great numbers of young people born in the years of extremely high birth rates after World War II are now attaining college graduation age. The proportions of young people completing college and going on to postgraduate study continue to rise. Largely for these reasons, the supply of new entrants into the professions is expected to catch up with the growing demand on an overall basis in the coming decade. Already, personnel shortages are much abated in some fields.

This does not mean, however, that manpower needs have been or will be met in all professions. On the contrary, personnel shortages are expected to persist in many specialties and local areas, unless training can be radically increased in shortage fields and better personnel utilization effected. In addition, there is need for more effective approaches to a most difficult problem—achieving an occupational and geographic allocation of personnel in line with economic and social needs, within a system which has as a basic tenet freedom of occupational and job choice for the individual.

This problem will assume major proportions in coming years in connection with women's choice of career fields. Teaching, the largest field of professional employment for women, is expected to grow much more slowly over the next decade than most other professions and to provide jobs for a far smaller proportion of women college graduates than in the past. Thus, the question arises whether, and by what means, women can be attracted in greater numbers to shortage fields, such as nursing and library science, where many women already work, and also afforded broader opportunity in professions now staffed predominantly by men.

In the scientific and engineering professions, challenges of a different kind but of even greater urgency lie ahead. Domestic problems whose speedy solution is essential to the national well-being—particularly those of environmental pollution and urban blight—will impose great new demands for scientific and engineering leadership and skills. They will require new interdisciplinary approaches, perhaps the evolution of new professions, and a new emphasis in scientific education on relevance to urgent national problems.

This chapter begins with an overview of the changing manpower supply-and-demand situation in prospect in professional and technical occupations as a whole, as indicated by the Department of Labor's projections. It then considers in greater detail the contrasting manpower development in teaching and the two other largest professional and technical fields—the natural sciences and engineering and the health occupations. The need to widen professional opportunities for women and Negroes and the persistent lag in higher education of youth—both white and black—from lower socioeconomic groups, are also discussed.

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No short-cut solutions are or can be suggested to any of these problems. It will not be easy, for example, to achieve the greatly expanded training and improved utilization of health manpower urgently needed; nor to shift the focus of scientific education and research to domestic needs; nor to help the increasing numbers of women college graduates who will have to seek jobs outside teaching to elect and enter other career fields; nor to overcome the barriers which impede the professional preparation of Negroes and disadvantaged youth. Progress in solving these problems will require the combined efforts of many groups—not merely employers, professional educators, and agencies concerned with the support of graduate education but also, among others, the counselors and teachers who influence young people's educational aspirations and choice of career fields.

The changing manpower situation in the professions offers both a challenge and an opportunity. With foresighted planning, it should now be possible to move ahead much more rapidly in meeting immediate personnel shortages and long-range manpower needs in both established and emerging professional fields and, in so doing, to open career opportunities on a more equal basis to all able young people.

Overall Trends in Demand and Supply

Manpower requirements in professional and technical occupations will be about half again as high in 1980 as in 1968, according to the Department of Labor's projections.[1] This expected increase in demand will involve an expansion in professional and technical employment greater in absolute numbers than has yet been achieved over any series of years—an average yearly gain of well over 400,000 in the work force in these occupations from 1968 to 1980, compared with an increase of about 335,000 per year from 1958 to 1968 and much lower figures in preceding decades. In percentage terms the growth rate is expected to slacken, however, to an annual average rate of slightly more than 4 percent, compared with nearly 5 percent from 1958 to 1968. And the differential in employment growth rates between professional and technical workers and the total work force will be much below the sixfold difference since World War II, though still quite large—probably at least 100 percent.

THE GROWING DEMAND FOR PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

Employment requirements are expected to increase in nearly every professional and technical field, although at widely different rates. (See chart 21.) Among the most rapidly growing occupations will be those directly related to work with computers—for example, systems analyst and computer programer, in which employment may double or triple by 1980. Among the slowest growing will be elementary and secondary school teaching, where the rate of employment growth will be much below the average rate (25 percent) projected for all occupations. Personnel needs are leveling off in school teaching as a whole (for demographic reasons discussed later in this chapter), despite the continuing shortages of qualified teachers in some specialties and "difficult" areas, notably urban ghettos and rural poverty pockets.

These projections of the employment future are, of course, heavily influenced by the economic, political, and demographic assumptions which underlie them. First of all, the Department of Labor's manpower projections assume full employment, with the unemployment rate down to 3 percent in 1980. They also assume that the size of the Armed Forces and the pattern of defense expenditures in 1980 will reflect a "cold war," not a "hot war," situation; that scientific and technological advances will continue at about the same rapid rate as in the recent past; and that expenditures for research and development will go on increasing, although at a slower rate than in the late 1950's and early 1960's.

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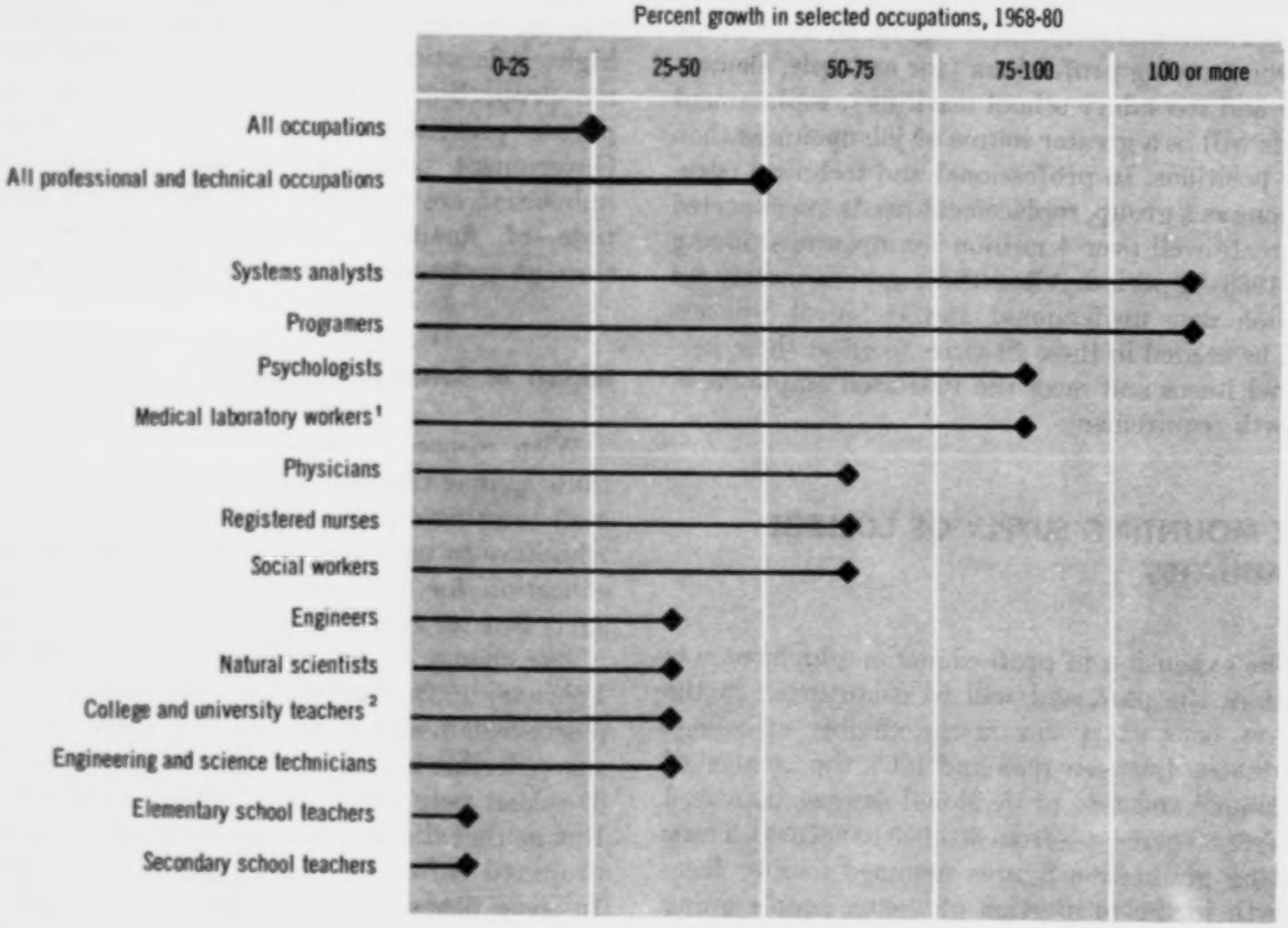
[1] The Department of Labor's projections referred to in this chapter were developed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and are part of that Bureau's overall model of industrial and occupational projections to 1980.

CHART 21

Employment requirements will rise much faster in some professions than in others.



¹ Includes technologists, technicians, and aides.
² Full-time, holding rank of instructor or above.
Source: Department of Labor.

The projected large increases in requirements for professional and technical manpower represent the growth in effective demand judged to be most probable under the indicated assumptions. They would provide enough highly trained workers for moderate continued advances in education, health care, housing, and other aspects of living standards for the growing population. An even more rapid growth in the professional work force would be essential, however, to achieve the kinds of overall improvement in the conditions of American life called for by a recent illustrative study of national "aspiration goals." [2] If the necessary priorities could be set and large resources committed to progress in the social and economic areas covered by these goals, the demand for professional manpower would mount much higher than is indicated by the requirements projections.

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[2] Initiated in 1960 by President Eisenhower's Commission on National Goals, the project was carried forward by the National Planning Association, which made a special study for the Department of Labor of the manpower implications of the various goals. See Leonard A. Lecht, *Manpower Needs for National Goals in the 1970's* (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1969).

Another large source of manpower needs, not reflected in either the projections of employment requirements or the analysis of national goals, is the inevitable loss of personnel through deaths, retirements, and transfers to jobs outside the professional and technical category. In some of the slower growing professions (for example, elementary and secondary school teaching), replacement needs will be a greater source of job openings than new positions. In professional and technical occupations as a group, replacement needs are expected to create well over 4 million job openings during the 1968–80 period. Altogether, approximately 9.4 million new professional and technical workers will be needed in these 12 years to offset these personnel losses and meet the indicated employment growth requirements.

THE MOUNTING SUPPLY OF COLLEGE GRADUATES

The expansion in professional employment was built in the past, and will be conditioned in the future, on a sharp rise in the number of college graduates. Between 1958 and 1968, the number of bachelor's and first professional degrees increased by over 80 percent—from 363,000 to 667,000. These soaring graduation figures stemmed mainly from growth in the proportion of young people going to college, because of far-reaching economic and social pressures and motivations. The college-age population rose only moderately. In the decade ahead, the mounting demand for a college education will be coupled with sharp increases in the numbers of college-age youth, and graduations will continue to rise rapidly.

According to projections by the U.S. Office of Education, the number of bachelor's and first professional degrees awarded by the Nation's colleges and universities will probably rise from 667,000 in 1968 to about 1.1 million in 1980, or by roughly 60 percent. Besides allowing for expected increases in the college-age population, these projections assume a continuance of recent upward trends in college enrollment and graduation rates.

An even more rapid increase in graduate than in baccalaureate degrees is shown by the Office of Education projections, on the assumption that the proportion of college graduates obtaining higher degrees will continue to rise in line with recent trends. The growth in the number of master's degrees awarded is projected at well over 100 percent between 1968 and 1980; in Ph. D.'s, at more than 150 percent. (See table 1.)

These increases in graduate degrees will be contingent, however, on greatly expanded support of higher education and also on a continued rise in the proportion of college graduates electing to pursue postgraduate studies. Areas of Federal Government policy which will be particularly influential are Selective Service and the magnitude of financial aid to graduate education through guaranteed loans and other means.

Impact of Selective Service

With respect to Selective Service, the projections assume that the long-range effect on graduate education will be quite limited—that students who have to interrupt or postpone their graduate education for military service will generally resume it after completing their tours of duty.

The change in Selective Service regulations in February 1968, sharply restricting deferments for postbaccalaureate study, was not followed by the sharp decline in graduate enrollments in the 1968–69 school year which many educators had feared. But neither did enrollments increase to the levels projected before the change in draft regulations. In some fields—including law, history, and psychology—the number of men students dropped significantly. The decline was concentrated among first-year graduate students, who, for a variety of

TABLE 1. ACTUAL AND PROJECTED EARNED DEGREES, 1948 TO 1980

Academic year ending June 30	Bachelor's and first professional degrees	Master's degrees	Ph. D.'s
1948	271,000	42,000	4,200
1958	363,000	65,000	8,900
1968	667,000	177,000	23,100
1969	755,000	189,000	26,100
1970	772,000	211,000	29,000
1975	928,000	302,000	45,600
1980	1,074,000	382,000	59,600

SOURCE: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.

reasons, were the most likely to be eligible for the draft and refused deferments.

Draft calls continued to have some impact on enrollments in the first term of the 1969–70 academic year (for which fall enrollment data were not yet available when this report was prepared). However, an Executive order issued by the President as of October 1, 1969, permitted graduate students ordered for induction to complete the full academic year (not merely one semester as under previous regulations) before reporting for duty. In addition, enactment in November 1969 of legislation requested by the President permitting the selection of draft-eligible men for callup on a random basis, instead of on the oldest-first basis, ended any disproportionate concentration of callups among present and potential graduate students. The new random selection system became effective in January 1970.

The impact of military service on graduate enrollments should diminish still more from 1970–71 onward, as the students who were drafted complete the required 2 years of service and begin to return to the universities. However, the full effect of the return flow will probably not be felt until the following year.

From a long-run point of view, a much more important question is how many veterans decide to enter or reenter postgraduate study. Veterans' educational benefits will be available to help them do this, but under present legislation these benefits are not large enough to cover more than a fraction of total tuition and living costs.[3] The number of veterans who find it economically desirable and practicable to pursue graduate education will therefore depend heavily on the availability of guaranteed loans and other types of assistance. Thus, the problem of graduate education of veterans is part of the broader issue of the level of graduate student support—which is likely to be much more important than Selective Service callups in determining the future supply of highly educated manpower.

Graduate Student Support

Greatly increased Federal support for graduate students during the 1960's has been an important element in converting the large potential demand for such education into mounting graduate enrollments and degree completions. In 1968–69 the number of predoctoral fellowships and traineeships awarded by the Federal agencies with the largest graduate student support programs reached a peak of about 54,000. (See table 2.) In addition, many research assistantships were made possible by federally supported research programs, and other awards and traineeships were offered. Altogether, the number of graduate students aided that year was probably close to 100,000.

During the past 2 years, however, the upward trend in graduate student support has halted, as table 2 indicates. After rising from slightly under 10,000 in 1960–61 to about 54,000 in 1967–68, the number of students supported first leveled off and then fell sharply—to about 45,000 in the current academic year. The growth in Federal funds for research in colleges and universities recently leveled off also; in view of the sharply rising costs, this has undoubtedly meant a reduction in new

TABLE 2. STUDENTS WITH FEDERALLY SUPPORTED PREDOCTORAL FELLOWSHIPS AND TRAINEESHIPS, 1961–70

Academic year ending June 30	Number of students aided (thousands)	Percent of all full-time graduate enrollments
1961	9. 4	7. 5
1962	13. 3	10. 0
1963	15. 6	10. 5
1964	17. 7	10. 8
1965	22. 3	11. 3
1966	28. 3	12. 3
1967	41. 7	16. 1
1968	53. 6	17. 8
1969	53. 7	16. 9
1970	[1] 45. 1	([2])

[1] Preliminary.

[2] Not available.

NOTE: Includes data on predoctoral fellowships and traineeships awarded by the Atomic Energy Commission, National Aeronautics and Space Administration, National Science Foundation, Department of Housing and Urban Development, Department of Interior, and Department of Health, Education, and Welfare's Office of Education, Public Health Service, and Social and Rehabilitation Service. Data for National Institutes of Health and National Institute of Mental Health training grants are not available.

SOURCE: Unpublished data from Federal Interagency Committee on Education.

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[3] See the discussion of Services to Returning Veterans in the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

research assistantships. Furthermore, opportunities for college teaching assistantships are now becoming scarce, both because of the greater availability of fully qualified Ph. D.'s and because colleges are reevaluating the use of graduate students for undergraduate teaching assignments.

PROSPECTIVE SUPPLY-AND-DEMAND RELATIONSHIPS

A rough appraisal of the overall supply-and-demand situation ahead for college-educated personnel is possible on the basis of the Department of Labor's projections. In this appraisal, allowance has been made not only for the expected supply of college graduates and the projected requirements for professional and technical manpower but also for two other key factors—what proportion of new college graduates will enter professional and kindred occupations and, conversely, what proportion of the job openings in these fields will be filled by these graduates.

Only about two-thirds of all employed college graduates were in professional and kindred occupations in 1968. This proportion has not changed significantly in recent years—because the rising demand for college-trained personnel in the professions has been offset by equivalent increases in requirements in other fields of work, especially administrative and managerial occupations. The projections assume that this situation will persist—that the proportion of college graduates going into professional and technical work will still be about 2 out of 3 in 1980. On the other hand, the proportion of professional and technical jobs filled by people with a college education is expected to increase slightly (from three-fifths in 1968 to two-thirds in 1980), reflecting both the growing numbers of college graduates available and the rising educational demands of many jobs.

With allowance for all these factors, it appears that a rough overall balance between the supply of college-educated personnel and the requirements for them in professional and other fields is possible and likely—that demand and supply will each total somewhat more than 10 million over the 1968–80 period as a whole.[4] But emphatically, this does not mean that supply and demand will be in balance in all professional fields or all areas of the country. A more adequate overall supply of professional manpower is in sight than has been available in most years since World War II. Yet qualified personnel will continue to be scarce in some specialties and local areas, unless more effective efforts, including better occupational guidance, can be made to increase the numbers of new entrants and reentrants in these fields and to improve personnel utilization.

Furthermore, large commitments of national resources to meeting the country's domestic needs, such as are suggested by the National Goals project, could mean intensified and more widespread personnel shortages. Though the aspiration goals developed through this project are only one illustration of possible social objectives for the Nation, it is significant that the anticipated supply of college graduates would fall short of that required for full attainment of all the goals. Choices would have to be made and priorities set—for example, among the goals in education, health care, housing, urban renewal, and research and development. The priorities decided upon could have a tremendous impact on the types and numbers of professional and technical workers needed, as well as on employment requirements in other occupations.

Because of the crucial relation of Government policy decisions to both the prospective supply of Ph. D.'s and the demand for them in different specialties, future supply-and-demand relationships in this segment of the professional work force have peculiar uncertainty. Another imponderable factor is the capacity of these highly trained personnel to themselves generate new and added demands for their services, through their own scientific breakthroughs.

The country's urgent domestic problems should evoke creative efforts from specialists in both established and emerging fields and lead to demands for top-trained personnel which cannot yet be assessed in specific terms. Some shifts in the patterns of specialization of Ph. D.'s, as of workers with lower levels of training, are very likely, however.

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[4] Most of the supply of college-educated workers will be new college graduates. However, the supply projections also include an allowance for entrance into the labor force of persons who graduated from college before 1968 but who were neither working nor looking for work in that year. Some will be reentrants (that is, persons employed in some previous year); others will be delayed entrants without work experience. Immigrants are still another source of college-trained manpower and the major source of men entrants other than new degree recipients.

An effective attack on problems such as urban blight and environmental pollution will require knowledge and techniques from many fields, including the natural and social sciences and the health professions. This implies the use of interdisciplinary teams working on these problems, or the development of interdisciplinary specialties, or—most probably—both. The National Science Board has urged the establishment of social problem research institutes that will enable engineers and natural, social, and behavioral scientists and other professional workers to pool their insights and techniques for effective social engineering.

Another innovative approach—recommended by the Behavioral and Social Sciences Survey Committee, set up jointly by the National Academy of Sciences and the Social Science Research Council—is the establishment of postgraduate schools of applied behavioral science. These schools would give their students both a broad background of social science knowledge and techniques for applying this knowledge to immediate, critical problems.

Developments of this kind will surely change professional functions and the content of professional education. Taken together, they are also likely to add to the total demand for highly educated personnel.

Natural Scientists and Engineers

PAST TRENDS AND SHORT-RUN SHIFTS IN MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS

The rapid growth in scientific and technical employment since World War II has been at once the source and the outcome of this country's advancing civilian and defense technology. Employment of natural scientists and engineers reached 1½ million in 1968, about double the number (740,000) in 1953. (See chart 22.) This was an even more rapid gain than in professional and technical employment as a whole (which rose by about 90 percent during the same period).

Great increases in Federal expenditures for research and development—primarily for the defense, atomic energy, space, and health programs—were a major factor in this expansion in scientific and engineering employment. Government R&D expenditures rose from a little over $3 billion in 1953 to $17 billion in 1968. But employment of scientists and engineers also rose in R&D projects financed by private industry, and in production, teaching, and other activities financed only in small part by the Government. The proportion of scientists and engineers in R&D work is still no more than 36 percent (as compared with 30 percent in 1953).

In the last several years, however, growth in scientific and engineering employment has been restricted. The Federal budgetary situation has led to a leveling off in Government expenditures for research and development. And in view of rising costs in research and development, as in other sectors of the economy, a leveling off in funds can mean a reduction in R&D staffs.

As early as 1968, there was evidence of a loosening supply-and-demand situation among R&D scientists and engineers. A survey of Ph. D.'s in private industry, conducted by the Department of Labor for the National Science Foundation,[5] found no general shortage of personnel with this top level of education, although qualified workers could not be recruited in some developing specialties. According to the company officials interviewed, supply-and-demand conditions for Ph. D.'s in science and engineering were more in balance in 1968 than they had been in the preceding few years. The respondents generally attributed this change to the reduced growth in Federal Government support for R&D projects in colleges and universities.[6]

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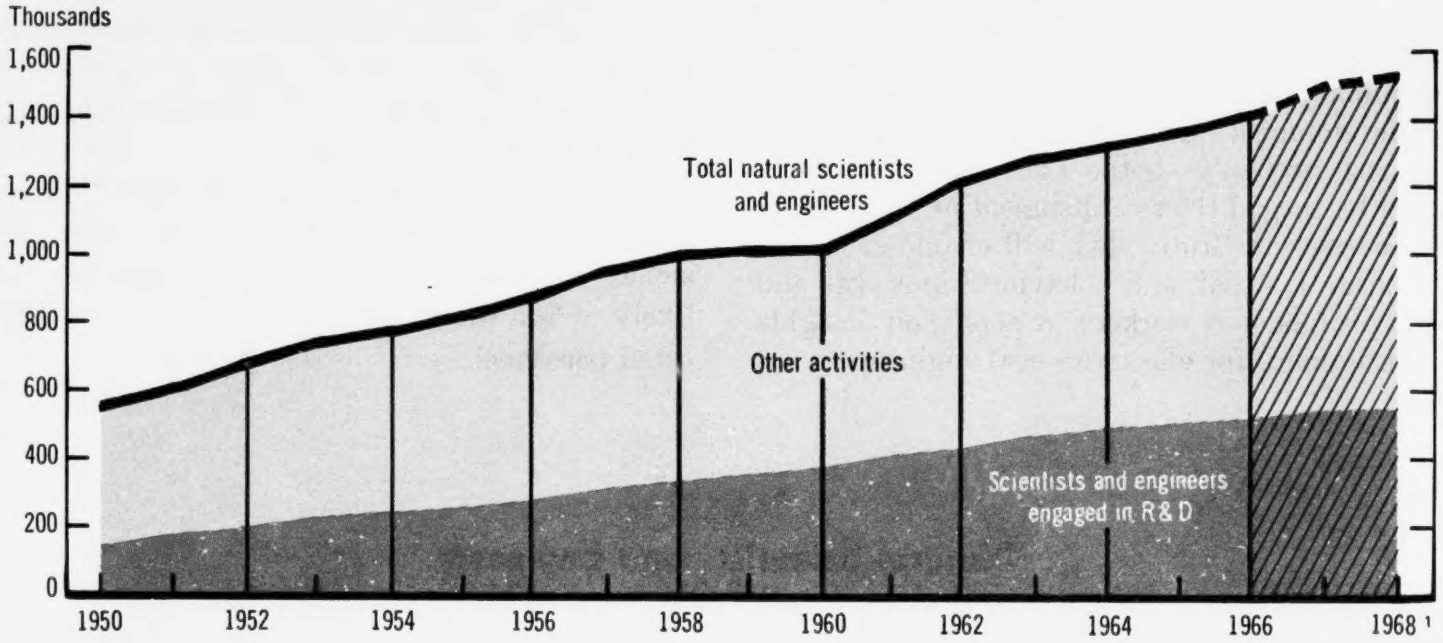
[5] "Ph. D. Scientists and Engineers in Private Industry, 1968–80" (Washington: Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, in press).

[6] Federal support for research and development in colleges and universities (excluding federally funded research centers) increased by 20 percent a year from 1959 through 1966 but by only 3 percent a year during the following 3-year period (in current dollars). In constant dollars (adjusted for cost increases), Federal support for research and development in these institutions actually declined over the past 3 years.

CHART 22

Employment of scientists and engineers has grown steadily in research and development and other activities.



[1] 1967 and 1968 data are estimates.

Source: Department of Labor.

Since that time, there has been further restriction of Federal R&D funds—with an impact on manpower requirements not measured as yet. In addition, it is anticipated that the ending or sharp reduction of the Vietnam war would bring cutbacks in defense research and production and lead to layoffs of scientists and engineers in some localities.

Short-term fluctuations in employment opportunities are almost inevitable in science and engineering, in view of these professions' heavy involvement in "mission-oriented" Government work. In 1963 and 1964, for example, defense contract changes and cutbacks led to some layoffs of engineers and other technical personnel, particularly by aerospace companies.

Following these layoffs, many of the displaced scientists and engineers, especially the older ones, had prolonged periods of unemployment. The engineers without college degrees, who presumably had achieved professional status through experience in a particular kind of defense work, were often unable to qualify for other professional engineering jobs.[7]

The serious adjustment problems which engineers and scientists—particularly those who are highly specialized and narrowly trained or in the older age groups—could face following defense cutbacks are thus underlined by past experience. They raise an issue which must be faced in planning for such cutbacks—namely, what are and should be the responsibilities of the Government and the employers involved for helping the displaced workers to obtain—and, if necessary, train for and move to—new positions commensurate with their education and previous experience.

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[7] See papers submitted at a National Symposium on Stabilization of Engineering and Scientific Employment in Industry at San Jose State College, San Jose, Calif., sponsored by the Manpower Research Group, Center for Interdisciplinary Studies, in November 1966: (1) Dr. R. P. Loomba, "Results of the San Francisco Bay Area Layoff Study"; (2) Dr. Joseph D. Mooney, "Results of the Boston Layoff Study"; (3) Mr. Robert Brandwein, "Results of the Boeing Layoff Study with Special Reference to Engineers/Scientists"; (4) Dr. Walter E. Langway, "Results of the Long Island Defense Layoff Study with Special Reference to Engineers and Scientists"; (5) Dr. Leslie Fishman, "Results of the Martin (Denver, Colo.) Layoff Study with Special Reference to Professionals."

THE LONG-TERM OUTLOOK

In the longer view, however, the outlook is for strong growth in requirements for scientists and engineers. New dimensions of demand for scientific and engineering talents in solving urgent national problems are clearly discernible. These relate to the cumulative impact on the environment of population growth; increasingly rapid depletion of natural resources; and the effect of chemical, biological, and nuclear contaminants. New techniques will be needed not merely to prevent environmental pollution but also to reverse destroying processes (such as those occurring in Lake Erie). In addition, a range of innovative techniques will be required to uncover additional resources in terrestrial depths and in the sea and to develop new substitute materials and new ways of processing ores and other raw materials not now economically usable.

These present and emerging needs will pose great demands for new specialties as well as old. At the same time, the more traditional demands upon the scientific and engineering professions will show further growth. Breakthroughs in science continue, each opening new opportunities and leading to new ventures in exploration and exploitation of natural resources. These discoveries are proceeding not only in the physical sciences but even more notably in the biological sciences and in the hybrid fields interpenetrating both. In engineering, added demands will be imposed for the development of increasingly complex products and processes and increasing automation in all sectors of the economy.

How large the future requirements for engineers and scientists could be is suggested by two sets of projections already drawn upon in this chapter. One is the National Goals project, which developed "aspiration goals" aimed at overall improvement in the quality of American life. To fully achieve the goals in all 16 specified areas by 1975 would require over 2 million engineers,[8] nearly twice the number employed in 1968. This figure can be regarded as an upper limit on requirements, unrealistically high in terms of the country's resources though not in terms of social and economic aspirations.

The Department of Labor's projections of manpower requirements also indicate rapid long-term growth in demand for engineers and scientists, though not at the pace called for by the National Goals study.

The increase in effective demand for engineers is projected at about 40 percent between 1968 and 1980. This would be a somewhat slower growth than occurred in the profession between 1958 and 1968, when the number of engineers rose from about 725,000 to 1.1 million. In the natural sciences, the projected growth in requirements would be slightly higher than that in engineering—about 50 percent. Here again, however, the growth rate is expected to be slower from 1968 to 1980 than during the preceding decade, when employment of scientists rose from 270,000 to 465,000.

On the average, about 74,000 new engineers would be needed annually during the 1968–80 period to make possible the projected employment growth and replace those who die, retire, or transfer to other fields of work. Not all of these new recruits will come from the engineering schools, however. In the past, many workers other than new engineering graduates have entered the profession (including technicians upgraded to engineering jobs, immigrants, and graduates of college departments other than engineering). On the other hand, many engineering graduates have gone into other occupations. If these partly offsetting factors continue in line with past trends, an average of approximately 45,000 engineering graduates would be needed annually to meet projected requirements.

In comparison, projections of earned degrees by the U.S. Office of Education indicate an annual average of about 43,000 new engineering graduates with bachelor's degrees over the 1968–80 period—implying that over the period as a whole, the supply of engineers will fall slightly short of demand.

This shortfall could be intensified if, as seems possible, more workers without engineering degrees find it increasingly difficult to enter professional engineering positions (because of the increasing knowledge requirements). The supply of new engineers could also be significantly reduced by sharp declines (not reflected in the graduation projections) in the proportion of college students entering and completing engineering curriculums. Although starting salaries for engineering graduates have been and are substantially above the average for all men college graduates, the proportion obtaining degrees in engineering has decreased substantially (from about 15 percent in 1958 to 10 percent in 1968).

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[8] Lecht, op. cit., p. 147.

The Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Education analyzed this problem, in the context of its finding that the supply of new engineering graduates would probably fall short of the demand over the next decade—and to a greater degree than is suggested by the Department of Labor's projections. The Commission emphasized the high dropout rates from engineering schools and concluded that:

> The [shortage] problem is not so much one of initially attracting more students to a career in engineering; at the beginning of high school, there are more than enough potential aspirants to fill all the demands projected a decade hence. . . . Rather, the problem is one of retaining a larger portion of the highly qualified students who enter the program. Whatever the causes of attrition—an overly rigorous curriculum, ineffective teaching practices, failure to hold the student's interest in an engineering career—engineering schools would do well to follow the example of medical schools, which have recently made intensive studies of factors affecting retention of students in their programs.[9]

In the natural sciences as a whole, personnel supply and demand is expected to be in better balance than in engineering over the 1968–80 period, according to the Department of Labor's projections. The number of new scientists needed annually to staff additional positions and meet replacement needs is likely to average somewhat under 45,000. This would include an average of over 20,000 openings per year for physical scientists, over 15,000 for biological scientists, and close to 8,000 for mathematicians. Recent enrollment trends suggest that the numbers of new graduates should be adequate to meet these demands on an overall basis.

Undoubtedly, labor shortages will occur in some specialties and subfields as new programs are developed, e.g., in marine sciences and in the control of environmental pollution. But the general shortage of trained scientific manpower should be at an end—offering the opportunity to focus less on the numbers of students and more on the evolution of new fields of study directed toward urgent national problems.

Teachers

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The shortage of elementary and secondary school teachers, a source of wide concern in communities throughout the country as recently as 1966–1967, was much reduced in 1969. However, the need for teachers has not been fully met as yet in rural schools or in city slums, nor in specialized teaching assignments of many kinds.

According to a survey by the National Education Association in midsummer 1969, only two of the 49 participating States reported substantial shortages of teacher applicants. Three years before, 20 States had such shortages. In 1969, for the first time in many years, two States reported an excess of applicants over requirements. Nevertheless, about a fourth of the States had a moderate overall shortage of applicants, and nearly all of them reported difficulty in filling vacancies in rural schools. A considerable number of school systems in small communities and in the central cities of large metropolitan areas also reported some difficulties in obtaining needed teachers, mainly for elementary school and specialized teaching assignments. Shortages of mathematics teachers and of qualified teachers for special and remedial education, work with the disadvantaged, industrial arts, and vocational education were emphasized particularly. Teachers of physical and natural sciences and women teachers of health and physical education were also in short supply.

By far the most important reason for the sudden improvement in the teacher supply-and-demand situation was the sharp increase in the number of new college graduates at the end of the 1960's, when college graduations began to reflect the upsurge in births after World War II. At the same time, the demand for new school teachers, which had climbed persistently over most of the postwar period, turned downward (as is shown in table 3).

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[9] John K. Folger, Helen S. Astin, and Alan E. Bayer, "Human Resources and Higher Education: Staff Report of the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Education" (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, in press).

TABLE 3. ACTUAL AND PROJECTED DEMAND FOR NEW ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS COMPARED WITH NUMBER OF COLLEGE GRADUATES, 1963 TO 1978

[Numbers in thousands]

Year	Total teachers employed	Number required for growth and replacement	New teachers required[1]	Total number of college graduates[2]	New teachers required as percent of graduates
1963	1, 806	209	157	444	35
1965	1, 951	208	156	530	29
1967	2, 097	222	166	591	28
1968	2, 178	239	179	667	27
1969	2, 225	209	157	755	21
1970	2, 245	190	142–190	772	18–25
1973	2, 286	189	142–189	859	17–22
1975	2, 304	183	137–183	928	15–20
1978	2, 334	187	140–187	1, 029	14–18

[1] Figures for 1963–1969 represent 75 percent of the total number required for growth and replacement, with a conservative allowance for the numbers of teachers who returned to the profession. Since the return flow of experienced teachers may possibly decline during the 1970's, the ranges shown indicate the numbers and percents of new teachers that would be required with a return flow ranging from 0 to 25 percent.

[2] Includes bachelor's and first professional degrees awarded.

SOURCE: Based on data from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.

Here again, the cause was demographic—a marked slowing of the growth in the school-age population, leading to an actual decrease in the numbers of additional teaching positions required annually.

During the 1970's, school enrollments will level off even more. In the elementary schools, an actual decline in enrollments is anticipated up to 1976 (reflecting the recent decline in births). After that, elementary enrollments will probably begin to climb slowly again, but in 1980 they are expected to be still slightly below their 1968 level. Secondary school enrollments will continue to rise, but much less rapidly than in recent years—probably by only about 14 percent over the 1968–1980 period, or only about one-fifth as fast as during the preceding 12 years.

This leveling off in enrollments implies only a small demand for new teachers to staff added positions. But there is a second large source of demand for new teachers—namely, replacement requirements. During the 1970's, as in the recent past, many more new teachers will be required to replace those who retire, die, or leave the profession for other reasons than will be needed to handle increased enrollments. Altogether, requirements for new teachers to staff new positions and fill vacancies are expected to total about 2.3 million over the 1968–1980 period—roughly 1.1 million in elementary and 1.2 million in secondary schools. Compared with the numbers of college graduates expected in coming years, this will be a relatively limited demand.

Projections have been made of the potential supply-and-demand situation, based on the demand figures just presented, Office of Education projections of college graduations, and two other key assumptions—first, that the reentry of former teachers (mostly married women) into the professions will continue in line with past trends and, second and most critical, that the proportion of young people entering teaching will also be much the same as in the recent past.

On this basis, the number of new college graduates seeking to enter elementary school teaching during the 1968–1980 period as a whole could be nearly double the projected demand, and the number seeking secondary school positions could be nearly 75 percent above requirements. Whether any such oversupply of teacher candidates actually develops will depend in large measure on how well young people are apprised of the employment outlook in teaching and the extent to which they act as "economic men" (and women) in their choice of profession.

Another way of looking at the situation is to estimate year by year what proportion of the new college graduates could be readily absorbed in teaching. As table 3 shows, this proportion is steadily declining. In 1963, the demand for new college graduates for teaching positions amounted to about 35 percent of the total number awarded bachelor's and first professional degrees. By 1969, this proportion had fallen to little more than 20 percent. It will go on decreasing rapidly—unless, as is most unlikely, the schools stop hiring experienced teachers wishing to return to the profession and take on only new graduates. Thus the outlook is for an increasing overall supply of personnel in the profession as the 1970's proceed.

Nevertheless, some teacher shortages will persist indefinitely unless stronger remedial action is taken. As the National Education Association's 1969 survey indicated, recruitment difficulties continue in schools in urban ghettos and depressed rural areas, where both working and living conditions are hard. Yet progress can be made in recruiting adequate teaching staffs for such areas if these conditions are improved and if sufficient incentives are offered. New York City, for example, has achieved a sudden shift from a shortage to a surplus of teacher candidates, despite the recent upheavals in the city school system. One important reason for the city's unusual success in meeting teacher requirements in the fall of 1969 was undoubtedly its adoption of "a salary scale unsurpassed in any major city." [10]

Shortages of teachers with training in mathematics, science, and other specialties in demand in private industry may continue also, unless teacher salaries become more competitive with those offered outside education. In addition, in rapidly growing specialties, such as preschool education and the education of handicapped children, there may be continued difficulty in finding qualified staff, unless student teachers are given special incentives to train in these fields.

The generally increasing supply of teachers offers school systems the opportunity to concentrate on meeting special needs of these kinds, and also to staff broader programs in elementary and secondary education which have been postponed or curtailed during the long period of teacher shortages. For example, many more teachers are needed—and could be available within a very few years—for enlarged vocational education programs, so that all high school students not bound for college could get occupational training. Additional teachers are also needed for large-scale expansion of remedial education programs, beginning in the elementary grades; this could help greatly to remedy educational deficiencies, raise reading levels, and cut school dropout rates.

The shocking amount of illiteracy still prevalent in the population was recently emphasized by the Commissioner of Education. The Office of Education is now planning a campaign to promote the "Right to Read" for everyone—which will, of course, increase the demand for teachers skilled in literacy training.[11]

Specialized education for handicapped children is still another area of need for expanded services and additional teachers. In 1968, only two-fifths of the Nation's school-age children with visual, hearing, speech, emotional, mental, or other handicaps requiring special educational services were being provided with such services.[12] In kindergarten and preschool education, the need for program and staff expansion is probably even greater—and underlined by findings as to the critical importance of very early schooling for disadvantaged children.

It must be emphasized that all these areas of teaching require special training. Prospective teachers must receive the kinds of preparation essential for employment in these and other areas of unmet need, if the abundant teacher supply in prospect is to be used effectively in attacking the country's critical educational problems.

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY TEACHERS

In higher education, the outlook is for an early easing of the acute shortages of faculty that characterized most of the 1960's. Continued improvement in teacher supply is expected, relative to demand, as the numbers of graduate-degree recipients (the major source of college faculty) grow more rapidly than enrollments (the key demand factor).

Both past and prospective trends in college enrollments broadly reflect several years later the same patterns of change as have occurred in secondary and, before that, elementary school enrollments. In the mid-1960's, the great numbers of young people born after World War II began to move out of the high schools and to inundate the colleges—in numbers increased not only by strictly demographic factors but also by the steadily rising demand for a college education. In contrast, college faculties of the 1960's were drawn mainly from age groups born before World War II, when birth rates were low.

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[10] "Year of School Opportunity," *New York Times*, Sept. 8, 1969.

[11] "The Right to Read—Target for the 70's," an address by James E. Allen, Jr., Assistant Secretary for Education and U.S. Commissioner of Education, before the 1969 Annual Convention of the National Association of State Boards of Education, Century Plaza Hotel, Los Angeles, Calif., Sept. 23, 1969.

[12] "1968 Commissioner's Assessment Report on the State of the Education Profession" (Washington: U.S. Office of Education, in press).

In the 1970's, this situation will tend to reverse itself. College enrollments will go on increasing, but more slowly, while the numbers of graduates earning master's and doctoral degrees—the main source of candidates for college teaching posts—will mount sharply.

According to projections by the U.S. Office of Education, the total number of full-time college teachers for degree programs will be about 415,000 in 1980, compared to 298,000 in 1968.[13] This would represent an average annual increase of only 3 percent during the 12-year period, about one-third the annual rate of increase in college teachers from 1960 to 1968. The slow increase in college enrollments will be the main factor restricting faculty growth.

Nearly as many new recruits to college teaching (close to 100,000 between 1968 and 1980) will be needed to replace teachers who die or retire as will be required for the projected slow expansion in teaching staffs in degree-credit programs. Altogether, requirements for new college teachers from these two sources are likely to total about 200,000 during the 12-year period.

To meet this demand for new teachers, colleges and universities will be able to draw on record numbers of new graduates with advanced degrees. The Office of Education projections of such degrees (shown in table 1 earlier in this chapter) indicate a rise of more than 150 percent in Ph. D.'s between 1968 and 1980, and a doubling in master's degrees—on the assumption that the proportions of college graduates obtaining these degrees will continue to rise as in the recent past. However, as already indicated, an increase in doctoral degrees of the magnitude projected will be contingent on many uncertain factors, including large increases in both public and private support of graduate education. In addition, the proportion of college graduates going on to postgraduate study could be influenced by economic factors not operative before the last couple of years—notably, the shifting supply-and-demand situation in college teaching and the recent leveling off in R&D programs.

These caveats, however, relate only to the magnitude of the impending increases in advanced degrees in the arts and sciences, not to the near certainty that such increases will occur. A growing supply of new Ph. D. recipients can be expected during the 1970's, and with it a strengthening of the faculties in many institutions which have recently been unable to recruit the desired numbers of faculty members with Ph. D.'s.

Though progress in remedying this situation should start immediately, it will take a considerable number of years to really satisfy the demand for Ph. D.'s in college faculties. According to projections by the National Science Foundation covering the 1970's:

> The requirements for science doctorates will greatly exceed the probable supply available to the colleges and universities throughout most of the period. By the end of the decade the growing numbers of doctorates will begin to approximate the academic requirements, and after 1975 the situation should be greatly improved.

The point at which the demand for Ph. D.'s for college teaching will be fully met in each major discipline (in the sense that 90 percent or more of the faculty members in the field in 4-year institutions will have Ph. D.'s) has been estimated by the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Education. Their projections suggest that this point may be reached in the mid-1970's in the physical sciences and mathematics but not until the 1980's in other fields (probably even later in the humanities).[14]

The greater availability of Ph. D.'s should be helpful in improving the quality of education at institutions that fall significantly below the national average in the proportion of faculty members holding this degree. Among these are many of the predominantly Negro colleges and universities, which face shortages of Ph. D.'s of crisis proportions because of the recruitment of their faculty by predominantly white institutions. They will need substantial aid in improving their salaries and facilities in order to benefit from the expected greater supply of such highly trained teachers.

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[13] These estimates exclude part-time and junior teaching staff; Ph. D.'s engaged part time in college teaching usually have primary positions of other types and so are counted as employed in other occupations.

[14] Folger, Astin, and Bayer, op. cit.

For teachers without Ph. D. degrees, demand is expected to drop sharply in college degree-credit programs.[15] However, such teachers should find many opportunities in the expanding nondegree programs and in special fields, including extension, mail, and TV teaching. Furthermore, in junior and community colleges, an aptitude for teaching and work-related experience may be valued more highly for many positions, even in degree-credit courses, than the research-oriented doctorate. Special teacher-preparation programs to meet the needs of these colleges are increasing in number, and the generally favorable supply situation in college teaching should aid their further development.

Health Manpower

The demand for medical care has outstripped the Nation's health manpower resources throughout the 1960's. Shortages of physicians and nurses, the subject of wide public concern, have led to rapidly increased utilization of auxiliary health workers and thus to intensified labor shortages in the supporting health occupations. Personnel shortages are acute in virtually all segments of the "health services industry"—hospitals, nursing homes, offices of medical practitioners, and medical laboratories.

What these shortages mean in terms of inadequate health care was well described by the National Advisory Commission on Health Manpower. In discussing the "health crisis" in the country, the Commission said in part:

> . . . The indicators of such a crisis are evident to us as Commission members and private citizens: long delays to see a physician for routine care; lengthy periods spent in the well-named "waiting room," and then hurried and sometimes impersonal attention in a limited appointment time; difficulty in obtaining care on nights and weekends, except through hospital emergency rooms; . . . reduction of hospital services because of a lack of nurses; . . . uneven distribution of care, as indicated by the health statistics of the rural poor, urban ghettto dwellers, migrant workers, and other minority groups, which occasionally resemble the health statistics of a developing country. . . .[16]

Yet employment has increased rapidly in the health services industry—by 50 percent between 1960 and 1968, to a total of about 4.3 million in the latter year.[17] The rate of employment growth in the industry was more than three times the average rate for the economy as a whole in the same period, and it will probably continue to outpace the employment rise in most other industries in the decade ahead.

The growth in demand for health services is impelled by forces which generate unremitting pressure to expand these services to the limit of available manpower or beyond. Large population growth and increasing public awareness of the value of health care are basic factors underlying the steadily rising demand for health services. The expansion of health insurance coverage has helped to finance this care; a large majority of Americans now have some coverage under health insurance plans. Government subsidies for hospital construction have also raised manpower requirements, as did the past increases in Government support of medical research, which has recently leveled off. The Medicare program and the expansion of health services for low-income groups under the amended Social Security Act (Medicaid) have been added sources of demand. Rapid development of biomedical science and technology, by enlarging the scope of medical services, has further increased the demand for these services.

Efforts are already underway to ease the shortages of professional and supporting personnel through special training programs and better utilization of the existing supply of qualified health manpower. But much further progress in these and other directions (discussed below) will be essential to meet health manpower requirements.

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[15] The master's degree is, to an increasing extent, the desired level of preparation for teaching in elementary and secondary schools. This accounts in part for both increased demand for persons with the degree and the greater numbers earning it.

[16] *Report of the National Advisory Commission on Health Manpower* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 1.

[17] Includes private wage and salary, government, self-employed, and unpaid family workers. Another 400,000 workers in health occupations are employed outside the health service industry—many in the health units of manufacturing and trade establishments, in pharmacies, and in research.

PHYSICIANS

The shortage of physicians to meet the Nation's urgent needs for medical services is probably as high as 50,000, according to estimates by the U.S. Public Health Service. Compared to the 295,000 physicians professionally active in the United States in 1968,[18] this represents a shortage rate of about 15 percent.

The scarcity of physicians would be more serious were it not for the contributions of physicians who are graduates of foreign medical schools. In 1967, about 40,000 physicians, comprising 14 percent of all those active in the country, were graduates of such schools.

Aided by the influx of foreign-trained physicians, the ratio of physicians to population has inched upward recently, after remaining the same for many years (about 150 per 100,000 people). The ratio is much higher in some geographic areas than others, however. There were nearly 60 percent more physicians per 100,000 people in the Northeastern States than in the Southern States in 1967. In all regions, shortages of doctors are worse in small communities than in metropolitan areas. Even within a city or metropolitan area, the ratio of physicians to population may be much lower in poor ghetto neighborhoods than in adjoining, more affluent ones.

Because of the sharply increased numbers of physicians in specialized practice and in teaching, research, and administration, the number providing family health services has dropped. In 1950, there were 76 general practitioners, internists, and pediatricians per 100,000 population. By 1967, this ratio had fallen to 49 per 100,000.

A very rapid continued growth in requirements for physicians is projected. The total number of physicians required for patient care, medical research, and teaching is expected to be about 50 percent above the 1968 employment level by 1980.[19]

This needed growth in the profession—added to the demand for doctors to replace those who die, retire, or stop practicing for other reasons—implies a need for about 20,000 new physicians a year between 1968 and 1980. Yet if medical schools were to continue operating at their current capacity, and if about the same number of immigrant physicians were licensed as in recent years (about 1,800 a year between 1964 and 1968),[20] only about 10,000 doctors would join the work force each year—half the projected requirement.

To meet the implied deficit in supply is far beyond the capacity of the country's medical schools, which had a 1968–69 graduating class of only about 8,200. Some expansion in medical school enrollments is anticipated, with assistance under the Health Professions Educational Assistance Act of 1963; projects already funded or approved should raise their enrollments from about 36,000 to 46,000 between 1968 and 1980. On the other hand, the leveling off in Federal funds for medical research may hamper expansion in medical schools and could even lead to reductions in graduations in some cases, though the chief impact will be on the levels of research and postgraduate training.

Further expansion of the medical schools is an important objective. But in medicine, the lead time required to set up a training institution and for this institution's first entering class to qualify for practice may extend for 8 to 12 years. The best hope of quick, substantial improvement in the availability of medical services lies in large-scale efforts to achieve better utilization and allocation of the present supply of physicians and of those who will shortly enter practice.

REGISTERED NURSES

The shortage of registered nurses has probably received even more attention than that of physicians. Although the number of registered nurses has been increasing at a faster rate than the population—rising from 282 per 100,000 population in 1960 to 338 per 100,000 in 1969—it has not kept pace with the increasing demand for health care services. A joint American Hospital Association–Public Health Service study in 1966 indicated an urgent need for 57,000 additional nurses to serve hospital patients. The overall shortage of nurses is considerably more severe.

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[18] Includes M.D.'s only.

[19] The projections of requirements (by the Bureau of Labor Statistics) represent estimates of the effective demand for workers in 1980, developed under a specific set of assumptions, rather than estimates of manpower needs to provide specific standards or goals of medical care. For an illustration of this latter concept and the expanded personnel requirements it could imply, see Lecht, op. cit., pp. 74–76.

[20] *Journal of the American Medical Association*, State Board issue, June 16, 1969.

In nursing as in medicine, personnel shortages tend to be much more acute in small cities and rural areas than in large metropolitan areas and in some localities within the same city than in others. They are also worse in some regions than others. For example, the ratio of nurses to population is about half as large in the South as in the Northeast.

Requirements for registered nurses in 1980 are likely to be about 1½ times the 660,000 employed in 1968, according to the Department of Labor's projections. In addition, replacement needs will be heavy (an estimated 260,000 between 1968 and 1980), since nursing, like other fields staffed predominantly by women, loses large numbers each year because of family responsibilities.[21]

Altogether, the number of new nurses required to fill additional positions and to meet replacement needs will probably average more than 50,000 a year. In comparison, about 42,000 nurses graduated from nursing schools during 1968, and not all of them entered nursing. Thus, to meet projected requirements, the annual number of graduates must be increased by at least 8,000 a year between 1968 and 1980.

This increase should be within reach, in view of the projected rapid growth in college enrollments. However, most of the increase will be in graduates of 2-year (associate degree) college nursing programs, with the balance coming from 4-year programs. The proportion of new nurses trained in 3-year diploma programs in hospitals, the traditional form of nursing education, is likely to decline slowly.

Nursing schools should be aided in attracting more students by the changing labor market situation in the largest "women's profession"—school teaching (as discussed in the section on Women Professional Workers). How many more young women actually enter nurse training will depend heavily, however, on the extent of improvement in salaries and working conditions in the profession. Nursing has been at a disadvantage in the past because pay standards and conditions of employment have lagged behind those in many other fields of work with less demanding educational and training requirements. But nursing salaries have been upgraded significantly in many areas during the last few years. If this trend continues and other sources of dissatisfaction among nurses are reduced, these developments should help not only to bring more young people into the profession but also to reduce turnover and encourage former nurses to return to duty.

OTHER HEALTH OCCUPATIONS

As employment demand has increased in the established health professions, many new occupations have emerged. There is a strong trend toward increased diversification and specialization of health care services, impelled by both shortages of top professional personnel and advances in medicine and technology.

Many of the allied and supporting occupations now have personnel shortages also. According to surveys of hospitals and nursing homes in 1966, provision of optimum care services would require at least a third more workers than were then employed in the following specialties: Occupational, physical, and recreational therapy; clinical social work; speech pathology; and audiology. There was similar need for additional inhalation therapists in hospitals and medical record librarians in nursing homes.

In some of the allied health occupations, the personnel shortages can be traced to limited training facilities. Many have high turnover rates, in part because of the large numbers of young women employed. But low pay and poor working conditions are also prevalent. Workers in the lower level occupations such as nurse aide, orderly, and hospital attendant have only recently been brought under the Fair Labor Standards Act; their minimum hourly wage, increased from $1.30 to $1.45 as of February 1, 1970, will not catch up with the $1.60 minimum for workers previously covered by the law until 1971. Most employees of hospitals and nursing homes lack collective bargaining rights. Most hospital workers also lack unemployment insurance protection, though UI coverage would be extended to them by the amendments to the UI law recommended by the Administration and passed by the House of Representatives during 1969.[22] Many are not covered by State workmen's compensation laws. The rate of improvement in their employment conditions will largely determine the rate of progress possible in attracting more workers into supporting health occupations.

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[21] This replacement figure is a net one—the difference between the total number of nurses expected to leave the work force because of death or retirement or for other reasons between 1968 and 1980 (roughly 450,000) and the number of inactive nurses expected to return to the profession (estimated at 190,000).

ACTION TO RELIEVE PERSONNEL SHORTAGES

In seeking solutions to the health manpower crisis, experts place increasing emphasis on improving the utilization of health workers. Some have even suggested that there would be no shortage of health manpower if the existing work force were properly utilized. Others believe that the development of additional manpower should be given primary emphasis. There is little doubt that progress must be made in both directions to meet health manpower needs.

Developing Health Manpower

The education and training required for the approximately 200 health occupations range from a few weeks of on-the-job training for a nurse aide to 10 or more years of post-high school education and training for a physician.

The education and training of health manpower at all levels have been aided by a number of Federal programs, including those authorized by the Health Professions Educational Assistance Act of 1963, Nurse Training Act of 1964, Allied Health Professions Personnel Training Act of 1966, Health Manpower Act of 1968, Vocational Education Act of 1963, Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964.

Much study and innovation are also taking place with respect to the education of health workers. Medical schools are working with colleges to shorten the total period of education for some of their students. They are also examining postdoctoral (internship and residency) training in search of ways to shorten the training period. Progress is also being made in increasing the size of medical school classes.

Nursing education is being studied by the National Commission for the Study of Nursing and Nursing Education. The trend is toward less dependence on diploma schools of nursing based in hospitals and more on academic programs in universities, colleges, and junior colleges. There is considerable debate, however, concerning the effects of these education changes on both the quantity and quality of professional nursing personnel.

New schools of allied health professions are being developed, with core curriculums common to occupations with related skills. Health service institutions are experimenting with career ladder and upgrading programs. The problem, however, with many of these innovations is that they are isolated from the mainstream of medical practice and are not seriously evaluated by concerned professional and employer groups.

Despite the efforts to expand educational and training opportunities for health workers, the number of such opportunities is still inadequate to meet the demand. But this is only one of several reasons for the insufficient supply of health workers. Except for the medical professions, health occupations have generally lower status and levels of pay than many other career fields requiring no more education and training. In addition, opportunities for promotion and career mobility are often restricted by licensing laws, accrediting standards, problems associated with professional liability and negligence, professional societies, and tradition. To move from one occupational level to the next higher, an individual often has to leave his job and complete a prescribed amount of classroom training, regardless of what he may have learned on the job. By contrast, in many other fields of work, individuals can move up a career ladder through on-the-job training and experience.

To develop the required manpower and compete with other industries for badly needed workers, the health industry must be able to offer rewarding careers, particularly for young people entering the labor force. In addition, the industry needs to make much greater efforts to develop jobs for poor people with relatively little formal education, thus utilizing their abilities to supplement scarce manpower resources. Neighborhood Health Centers, established by the Office of Economic Opportunity to train and employ the disadvantaged in supporting health occupations and in new kinds of positions such as family health worker, have demonstrated the value of this approach.

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[22] For a discussion of this proposed legislation, see the chapter on Income Maintenance and Work Incentives.

The Department of Labor has several training programs aimed at developing better promotional opportunities for health workers. The Nurse Aid to LPN (Licensed Practical Nurse) Upgrading Program is sponsored by the New York City Department of Hospitals and the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees. This program enables a nurse aide to become an LPN through a combination of on-the-job and classroom training without leaving her job to attend an LPN school. It shows that personnel needs can be met by upgrading workers already in the health industry, rather than by the more common practice of recruiting inexperienced workers for formal training programs.

Another effort to build on existing skills is being made by the Santa Clara County Medical Society in California. Under a contract with the Department of Labor, this physicians' association is developing training, education, and employment opportunities for 50 former medical corpsmen released from military service. The objective is to show how their military health training and experience can be utilized to meet civilian needs.

Utilization of Health Manpower -

Interest in improving the utilization and efficiency of the work force is growing in the health industry for two reasons—recognition that not enough health workers will be trained in the near future to meet the population's health service needs, and concern over the rising cost of health services.

The National Advisory Commission on Health Manpower stated the need to improve utilization in the following terms:

> There is a crisis in American health care. The intuition of the average citizen has foundation in fact. He senses the contradiction of increasing employment of health manpower and decreasing personal attention to patients. The crisis, however, is not simply one of numbers. It is true that substantially increased numbers of health manpower will be needed over time. But if additional personnel are employed in the present manner and within the present patterns and "systems" of care, they will not avert, or even perhaps alleviate, the crisis. Unless we improve the system through which health care is provided, care will continue to become less satisfactory, even though there are massive increases in cost and in numbers of health personnel.[23]

The pressing need to improve physicians' productivity has led a number of medical societies to explore medical practices and to identify functions that might be handled by properly trained, though less highly educated, health workers. The American Pediatric Society, for example, has found that a good many tasks performed by pediatricians could be handled by pediatric assistants. Another experiment underway is the Duke University physician's assistant program designed to develop "an intermediate level professional with sophisticated and extensive technical capabilities" to perform many tasks that are now the sole province of the physician and thus free the physician for more demanding services.

In hospitals, where manpower utilization has been of special concern, the Department of Labor has sponsored several studies. One of these, by Northeastern University, involved analysis of hiring standards and tasks performed in 22 paramedical occupations in Boston hospitals. The researchers are to recommend changes in hiring standards and work assignments designed to improve personnel utilization and the quantity and quality of patient care.[24]

The Health Services Mobility Study, being conducted by the Research Foundation of the City University of New York, will cover all occupational categories in New York City hospitals and include the development of new methods for examining hospital tasks. This study is funded jointly by the Office of Economic Opportunity and the Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare.

Another approach to improving the efficiency of health workers is through the use of new, labor-saving technology. The many technological advances made so far in the health field have been aimed chiefly at new and improved services and have usually increased, rather than decreased, manpower requirements. Technology could, however, be used to a much greater extent than at present for the purpose of increasing the productivity of health workers.[25]

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[23] National Advisory Commission on Health Manpower, op. cit., p. 2.

[24] "Restructuring Paramedical Occupations" (Boston: Northeastern University, under contract with the Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, in process).

Suggested Areas of Action

Following are some areas in which action is already underway and should be pursued further by the health services industry in an effort to alleviate its critical manpower shortages.

The *attractiveness of health careers* must be improved. Sufficient numbers of workers will be attracted to health occupations only if the pay scales and fringe benefits are improved and made more competitive with those in other fields; if new opportunities for promotion and career advancement are opened; and if artificial standards for hiring and promotion are removed.

The health industry should take more aggressive action to *improve the utilization* of the health work force. Task analysis techniques can be used to arrive at a more rational organization of work tasks and to assist in the development of new kinds of positions as assistants to professional workers in short supply. More extensive use can be made of in-service training programs to develop maximum competence in the health work force. New technology, improved building design, and better layout of work areas should be used to increase worker efficiency.

There is a great need for *effective planning and coordination* of health manpower activities at all levels—local, State, and national. The health industry is fragmented into a large number of independent health care institutions, private practitioners, and group practices. This structure results in an unusual diversity of occupations and training methods and makes it very difficult for the industry to develop systematic plans for meeting its manpower needs. The major organizations and institutions in the health industry should work closely together in planning an industrywide approach to manpower development and utilization.

Efforts are already underway to develop comprehensive health services. A great variety of local, State, and regional organizations have been established, with assistance from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, to develop systematic plans and improve the delivery of health care. These organizations are becoming increasingly aware of manpower problems. They should work closely with the local and State committees of the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS) in identifying health manpower needs and in developing education and training programs.[26]

Widening Access to Professional Education and Employment

So far in this chapter, attention has centered on questions of manpower demand and supply, and on the measures needed to strengthen the resources of professional personnel and to improve their utilization, especially in the health fields. These are matters of national concern, in view of the critical role of the professions in dealing with the full spectrum of domestic and international problems.

The professions can be looked at from quite a different point of view, however—as a field of employment opportunity near the top of the economic and social ladder. Similarly, higher education can and should be viewed not merely as a source of highly trained manpower but as a key to personal development and rewarding employment, which should be open on an equal basis to all groups in American society.

Accordingly, the remainder of this chapter is concerned with three groups which face special obstacles in preparing for and achieving professional employment—people of low socioeconomic status, Negroes, and women workers. The brief discussions of these overlapping groups point to quite different problems but suggest a common need—for intensified efforts to insure that people of potential ability are not barred from opportunity for professional development.

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[25] For a discussion of this subject, see *Technology and Manpower in the Health Service Industry, 1965–75* (Washington: Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1967), Manpower Research Bulletin No. 14.

[26] See the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs for a discussion of CAMPS.

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR YOUTH IN LOW-INCOME GROUPS

The second Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Education recently concluded, after an extensive study, that there has been, since the 1954 report of the first Commission of Human Resources, "a gratifying decrease in the percentage of able young people who fail to enter college."[27] But the Commission also found that:

> To a substantial fraction of young people, access to higher education and to the professional and specialized fields becomes gradually but firmly closed by a complex set of barriers associated with low socioeconomic status. . . .
>
> One of the analyses shows that of 100 male high school graduates who stood high in scholastic ability and who came from homes of high socioeconomic level, 66 graduated from college and 26 continued immediately in graduate or professional schools. In contrast, of 100 male high school graduates of comparable scholastic ability, but from homes of low socioeconomic status, only 37 graduated from college and only 15 continued immediately in graduate or professional schools.[28]

The wide variation in enrollment rates among States also suggests that a great many capable young people still do not enter college. In 1965, according to U.S. Office of Education data, a little over half the high school graduates in the country went to college; the percentage ranged from as high as two-thirds of the graduates in States with a well-developed system of free or inexpensive higher education to as low as one-third in States with less adequate facilities for higher education. For poor and even for middle-class young people in States without readily accessible and inexpensive opportunities for higher education, lack of funds was obviously a major deterrent to college attendance.

Junior and Community Colleges

The accelerated development of community and junior colleges is one of the most important avenues to higher education of young people from low-income families.

The growth of 2-year institutions has been phenomenal during the past decade. By 1969, 1,000 of these institutions enrolled 2 million students, triple the 1960 figures. As the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education reported:

> The advance of the junior college movement over the last decade has greatly increased the accessibility of higher education to hundreds of thousands of American youth. A further extension of the growing junior college movement will continue this trend.
>
> Colleges to serve inner-city youth are urgently required in many of our major metropolitan areas. To meet this need, it is estimated that 500 community colleges and 50 urban four-year colleges should be established by 1976.[29]

Two-year institutions are perhaps more responsive to the needs of poor and disadvantaged youth than are other institutions of higher education. They enroll more than a third of all black college students, for example, and facilitate attendance for students from low-income backgrounds in three basic ways: They are academically accessible; tuition fees are low and in some cases nonexistent; and admission policies are relatively "open." In California, for example, admission to the ninety-two 2-year public institutions is granted to anyone who can benefit from the instruction.

The impact that junior colleges can have on enrollment rates is shown by a study which compared college attendance rates in cities with and without community colleges but with similar demographic and industrial characteristics. In cities without colleges, only 22 percent of the able students from families in the lower socioeconomic group managed to go on to higher education. By contrast, the college attendance rate of such young people was more than twice as high in cities with a community college. In all cities, however, the proportion going to college was still far lower among such young people than among those in the same ability group but from high socioeconomic backgrounds. About 80 percent of the latter went to college, regardless of the availability of local college opportunities.[30]

It must be recognized that the chances of graduating from college are much less for students who start out in a junior college than for those able to enroll in a 4-year institution. Nearly three-fourths of all junior and community college students are in academic programs, from which those with satisfactory records may transfer to the third year in a 4-year institution, but only about 1 out of every 3 actually makes such a transfer. However, 1 or 2 years in occupationally oriented junior college programs can have great economic value for young people from low-income families—by preparing them for technical and other occupations, many of which have personnel shortages and offer the possibility of later promotions up the occupational ladder. Strengthening of such occupational programs should be greatly aided as progress is made in implementing the 1968 amendments to the Vocational Education Act.

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[27] Folger, Astin, and Bayer, op. cit.

[28] Ibid.

[29] Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, *Quality and Equality: New Levels of Federal Responsibility for Higher Education*, A Special Report and Recommendations by the Commission, December 1968 (Hightstown, N.J.: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1968), pp. 36–37.

[30] L. L. Medsker and J. W. Trent, *The Influence of Different Types of Public Higher Institutions on College Attendance from Varying Socioeconomic and Ability Levels* (Berkeley: Center for Research and Development in Higher Education, University of California, 1965), U.S. Office of Education Project No. 438.

Besides equipping youth for entry positions, community colleges are facilitating this upgrading process. Many of them are establishing career education programs, offering advanced training in such fields as the allied health occupations, education, and engineering technology. By helping these institutions expand career education opportunities, the Nation can help to develop and utilize the potential of many disadvantaged young people who would otherwise lack access to higher level jobs.[31]

Financial Aid to Undergraduate Students

Great progress in overcoming financial barriers to college attendance has also been made through Federal student aid programs.

The College Work-Study Program initiated under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 provides aid in the form of on-campus and off-campus jobs. The Educational Opportunity Grant Program established under the Higher Education Act of 1965 provides outright grants to exceptionally needy students. In addition, there are two loan programs—first, the loan program established by the pioneering National Defense Education Act of 1958 and, second, the Guaranteed Loan Program set up under the Higher Education Act of 1965. The NDEA program provides direct Government loans to needy college students and offers partial forgiveness of the loans to those who enter the teaching profession. The Guaranteed Loan Program, which aids many young people from middle-income families, helps students obtain loans from participating financial institutions; the Federal Government guarantees the loans and contributes part of the interest payment.

Roughly 1 out of 4 undergraduates were aided by one or more of these Federal programs in 1968–69. The largest number of beneficiaries obtained guaranteed loans. Students benefiting from the other programs total more than 770,000—including nearly 280,000 from low-income families who received Educational Opportunity Grants. (See table 4.)

The magnitude of these aid programs may suggest that virtually all young people who need help in going to college can get it. This is by no means true, however. Relatively few students in junior colleges—only about 6 percent of the total in 1968–69—receive Federal aid. For this reason, a large proportion of them must combine work and study—a necessity which may well contribute to their high college dropout rates. If real progress is to be made in the higher education and professional preparation of poor young people—many of them members of minority groups—continued and enlarged financial aid programs will certainly be needed.

TABLE 4. COLLEGE UNDERGRADUATES RECEIVING SUPPORT UNDER FEDERAL STUDENT AID PROGRAMS, ACADEMIC YEARS 1967–70[1]

[Thousands]

Program	Actual, 1967–68	Estimated	
		1968–69	1969–70
Total[2]	1, 173	1, 559	1, 657
Guaranteed Loan Program[3]	515	787	924
National Defense student loans[3]	429	442	398
Educational Opportunity Grant Program	202	271	281
College Work-Study Program[3]	314	395	375

[1] Does not include programs under the Veterans Administration.

[2] Items do not add to totals because some students received support under more than one program.

[3] Graduate students are eligible to participate in these programs. The number in the Guaranteed Loan Program is believed to be substantial; the number in work-study and National Defense student loan programs, small.

SOURCE: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.

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[31] Special help is being given to disadvantaged people in preparing for subprofessional careers through the Department of Labor's New Careers program. For a discussion of the program see the chapter on New Developments in Manpower Programs.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT OF NEGROES

For Negroes who obtain a college education, employment opportunities have widened dramatically since the mid-1960's in both professional and managerial occupations. The proportion of men college graduates holding professional jobs is now substantially higher for Negroes than for whites. In managerial occupations the proportion of Negro male graduates has more than doubled in just 4 years (1964–68). College-educated Negro women have also made professional progress. (See table 5.)

With this opening of doors in professional and managerial employment has come a sharp increase in college attendance by Negro youth. This rise in enrollments has been stimulated by recognition of the increased economic and social value of college education for Negroes. It has been made possible by the development of community colleges and the financial aid to poor students (just discussed), coupled with the admission of many more Negroes to predominantly white institutions and a variety of other efforts to assist their college education. The proportion of Negro youth graduating from college is far below that of white youth, however, and the number receiving graduate degrees continues to be unsatisfactorily small.

There are, of course, many reasons for this—beginning with the deprived cultural background and inadequate primary and secondary education of large numbers of Negro youth. But encouraging progress has already been made in helping young people to overcome these obstacles. It is of national importance that this progress continue—that whatever needs to be done is done to insure greater expansion in the undergraduate and postgraduate education of Negro youth. As the recent employment record indicates, one of the most certain routes to satisfactory occupational and economic gains by Negroes lies in this direction.

Recent Employment Gains

Four out of every five Negro college graduates were in professional and managerial occupations in 1969. The proportion was much the same for men and women (80 and 82 percent) and was much higher for both than in 1964. The movement of Negro graduates into professional and administrative jobs was so rapid during this period that it nearly closed the gap between the proportion of Negro and white graduates in these fields of work.

These figures, of course, apply only to college graduates—who still represent a much smaller proportion of Negro than of white workers (7 percent compared with 13 percent in 1968). They are also overall figures, giving no indication of the grades of the positions held by Negro and white professional workers of the same age and educa-

TABLE 5. EMPLOYED COLLEGE GRADUATES IN PROFESSIONAL AND MANAGERIAL OCCUPATIONS, BY SEX AND COLOR, 1964 AND 1968

[Numbers in thousands]

Year and color	Men				Women	
	Number	Percent in professional and managerial occupations			Number	Percent in professional and managerial occupations
		Total	Professional	Managerial		
1964						
White	5, 158	81. 8	60. 0	21. 8	2, 107	82. 7
Negro and other races	266	69. 2	63. 9	5. 3	166	72. 9
1968						
White	6, 076	83. 5	60. 2	23. 3	2, 599	85. 5
Negro and other races	279	80. 3	68. 8	11. 5	280	82. 1

tional level. Nevertheless, the sharply rising proportion of college-educated Negroes in these high-status, relatively high-paid fields of work has great significance. It testifies to the effective change in industry and Government hiring policies in the years since the 1964 Civil Rights Act.

Prior to 1964, few recruiters visited predominantly Negro colleges in search of talent, but that year marked the turning point. The number of recruiters who made their first trips to these institutions in the spring of 1964 are a small fraction of the number who visit them today. Placement officials at Howard University, in Washington, D.C., for example, reported that about 600 companies sent representatives in 1967–68 to recruit from a class of about 1,000 seniors, and in 1969 recruitment efforts at the university were even greater. Florida A&M University in Tallahassee reported visits by recruiters from 500 companies in 1969, seeking "graduates who can fill jobs right across the board in business and industry." According to scattered information available, black students completing college last year often had their choice of several job offers. In addition, the Federal Government has made systematic efforts to recruit and upgrade Negroes in professional and other positions.[32]

Although quantitative data are not available on the kinds of jobs offered to Negro graduates, recent company recruitment efforts have certainly opened up positions outside the four professions traditionally chosen by Negro college students—teaching, medicine, the ministry, and law. The particularly sharp rise in managerial jobs between 1964 and 1968 provides additional evidence of their widening opportunities (table 5).

It must be recognized, however, that unfavorable changes have also occurred in the employment situation of Negro professionals, particularly in teaching and educational administration in Southern and border States. According to a study by the Maryland State Department of Education, there were 237 Negro school principals in that State in 1954, when the Supreme Court declared that segregated schools are unconstitutional. By September 1969, the number had decreased to 169, a decline of close to 30 percent, even though the number of schools in the State increased by 25 percent during the same period. Reports from a number of Southern States indicate that Negro principals and teachers were displaced as school desegregation progressed, even when the school systems were growing. In other parts of the country, however, demand for Negro teachers has increased enough to offset, at least in numerical terms, the reduction in opportunities in the South. The total number of school teachers who were Negro (or of other races except white) rose by about 25,000 in the country as a whole between 1964 and 1968 (from about 190,000 to 215,000).

Widening Opportunities for Professional Training

Preparation of Negro students for the wide range of professional and administrative positions now open to them is being aided by two major developments in Negro higher education—the broadening of curriculum offerings now in process in the predominantly Negro colleges and the rapidly rising enrollment of Negroes in the chiefly white institutions.

Teaching was still by far the largest field of training in predominantly Negro colleges in the 1963–64 school year. Almost half the bachelor's degrees and 80 percent of the master's degrees awarded by these institutions that year were in education. Very few of their graduates had majored in accounting or engineering, the two largest professional fields for men. But recently, 34 public Negro colleges, joined together in an effort to obtain financial and professional assistance in strengthening their curriculums, reported an increase in degree programs in fields with a strong demand for new graduates. Of these 34 colleges, the number offering degree programs in business had risen in a decade from 19 to 28; in accounting from 3 to 13; in economics from 6 to 14; and in nursing from 1 to 9.

As these new academic opportunities have opened, the proportion of students preparing for teaching, the ministry, law, and medicine has declined sharply, according to reports from several institutions. At North Carolina Central University in Durham, for example, where the great majority of students used to prepare for these fields, there has been a major shift into other fields offering favorable opportunities for graduates. Similarly, at Morehouse College in Atlanta, where most students used to prepare for teaching or the ministry, only nine out of the 131 students in the 1969 graduating class had majored in these fields.

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[32] For a discussion of Government action in this area, see the chapter on Toward Equal Employment Opportunity.

A still more significant factor in widening the fields of specialization of Negro students is, however, their rising enrollment in colleges and universities with a much wider range of offerings than most predominantly black institutions have yet been able to provide. In the fall of 1964, there were about 234,000 Negro college students, roughly half in predominantly Negro colleges. By 1968 the number had risen to 434,000, with a majority in predominantly white institutions.

What these figures imply with regard to students' fields of specialization is suggested by a 1966 survey of the characteristics of college students conducted by the Bureau of Census. In all types of institutions taken together, only 23 percent of the Negro students were education majors—perhaps half the percentage majoring in education at predominantly Negro institutions.

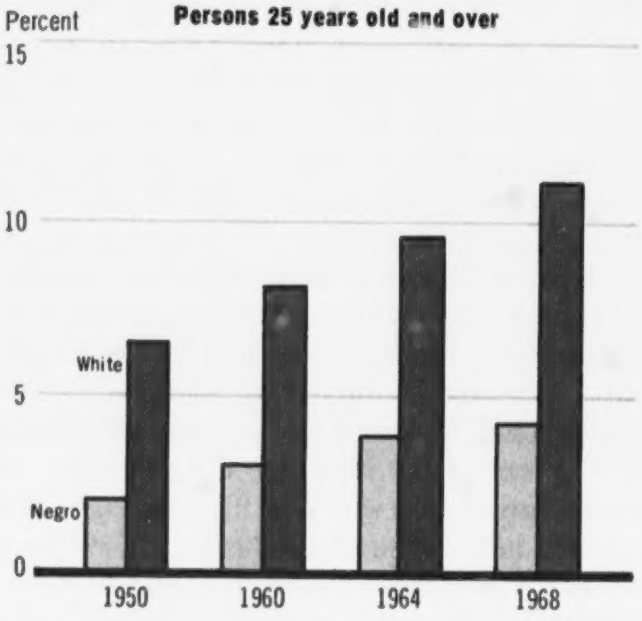
Furthermore, most opportunities for Ph. D. studies by Negro, as well as white, students are at the major universities offering doctoral programs in many disciplines. Both the wide range of fields in which Negroes are earning Ph. D.'s and the unfortunately small numbers yet involved are indicated by a Ford Foundation survey of Negro Ph. D. recipients in 1967 and 1968. In a representative group of predominantly white graduate schools, 83 Negroes obtained doctorates in 22 different fields (with the largest numbers in education, biology, and chemistry).

Needed Expansion in College Education of Negroes

The major barrier to further growth in employment of Negroes in professional and managerial occupations is the limited number with sufficient education. In 1968, fewer than half a million Negroes had 4 or more years of college education; in 1969, the figure was probably a little higher. The gap between Negroes and whites in the proportion with at least 4 years of college was actually wider in 1968 than in 1960. Though gains in college education were substantial among Negroes during this period, they were larger among whites. (See chart 23.)

CHART 23

Proportion of Negroes who are college graduates is increasing but remains much lower than for whites.



Source: Department of Labor, based on data from the Department of Commerce.

The extremely small proportion of Negroes who have completed 5 or more years of college is of great significance from the viewpoint of their professional preparation. In 1968, only about 1 out of every 100 Negroes aged 25 or over had as much education as this, compared with 4 out of every 100 whites. Moreover, of the relatively few Negroes with postgraduate training, a high proportion probably are teachers with master's degrees in education.

It is apparent that action to expand Negro college education—and thereby enable increasing numbers to qualify for professional and other high-level jobs—should proceed in two major directions. It should be aimed, on the one hand, at enabling and motivating more Negro youth to enter and complete college and, on the other, at rapid enlargement in the numbers of Negroes obtaining doctoral degrees or other specifically professional training in a wide range of high-demand fields.

Assistance to all Negro youth in preparing for medicine and dentistry is a particularly urgent need. One reason why Negroes suffer so severely from the lack of medical care is the very small number of Negro physicians and dentists. Recent reports indicate that only 2 percent of all physicians and only 2.4 percent of all medical school students are Negroes. Furthermore, fewer than 2 percent of all dental students are Negroes, and the number of Negro dentists has actually been declining over the past 30 years. The situation is likely to deteriorate further unless positive remedial action is taken, since students may be less willing to make the sacrifices involved in preparing for these professions when alternative professional opportunities are available.

Programs aimed at raising the educational sights of able youth from poor families have had demonstrated success. For example, the Upward Bound Program, established and supported under the Economic Opportunity Act, aided 24,000 poor high school students during fiscal 1969, of whom half were Negroes. A high proportion of Upward Bound students have entered and stayed in college. However, the number of young people whom it has been possible to help through this program, with the limited budgetary resources available, has been very small relative to the total need. It has been estimated that perhaps 600,000 youth, the majority Negroes, would qualify for aid under the program.

The establishment of community colleges in more local areas will also be an important means of increasing college enrollments of poor Negro youth, as will the availability of financial assistance to students. In addition, strong support should be given both to the efforts of white institutions to enroll more Negroes and to those of the predominantly Negro institutions to improve the quality and range of their educational offerings. The latter institutions will certainly be called on to play a continuing major role in higher education of Negroes. They need more funds for faculty salaries, libraries, laboratories, and other facilities and equipment if they are to make hoped-for progress in equipping Negro youth for the opportunities now open to them.

WOMEN PROFESSIONAL WORKERS

The growing numbers of college-educated women seeking to enter professional employment face the probability of a major shift in their pattern of employment. The need for them to seek broadened opportunity in career fields outside the traditional "women's professions" is likely to have much more urgency in the 1970's than in any previous period.

This prospect stems from the changing supply-and-demand situation in school teaching—the Nation's largest profession, which now employs about 2 out of every 5 women in professional and related jobs. With the expected sharp decline in the proportion of new college graduates needed in teaching (discussed earlier in this chapter), the number of professionally oriented young women available to prepare for nursing, social work, and other "women's professions" should increase—thus helping to overcome the personnel shortages in these fields (also discussed in preceding sections). But the arithmetic of demand-and-supply indicates that these fields will not offer enough opportunities for the mounting numbers of women college graduates. The slow, long-term trend toward wider opportunities for women in other professional and technical fields and in business administration will have to accelerate if the rising career expectations of women are to be met and their potential contribution to the economy realized.

Fields of Professional Employment

There were 3.9 million women professional workers in 1968, more than 1½ times the number 10 years before. This increase reflected the expanding employment requirements in teaching, nursing, and other professions staffed largely by women. The even more rapidly rising personnel demand in many other professional fields, especially science and engineering, benefited women only slightly. The number of women preparing for and entering these fields continued to be small.

Two professions—school teaching and nursing—employ a sizable majority of all women professional workers; the proportion was about 2 out of every 3 in both 1950 and 1960 and is undoubtedly much the same today. Common characteristics of these professions and of others staffed predominantly by women—such as library science, social and welfare work, and dietetics—include their service orientation and heavy concentration in the nonprofit sectors of the economy. Another is their relatively low salary levels, which have been one of the major reasons why so few men have been attracted to these occupations.

Personnel shortages have been still another problem shared by these professions. For a complex of reasons—including the low pay scales, sometimes poor working conditions, lack of child-care facilities, and rapidly mounting employment requirements—the "women's professions" have been plagued by a scarcity of qualified workers over the past two decades. Most of them still have a widespread need for additional personnel, though this is no longer true of teaching.

The shortages of trained personnel have stimulated efforts to attract more men into these fields. In teaching, these efforts have been spurred by educators' belief that boys would be helped by having more men teachers whom they could look up to as models. As a result, the proportion of men teachers has risen—from 25 to 30 percent between 1958 and 1966—with, of course, a corresponding drop in the proportion of women teachers. In social work also, men have been recruited actively, and their representation in the profession, while still well below 50 percent, is probably higher than in school teaching. On the other hand, in nursing—the second largest profession for women—efforts to recruit men to help meet widespread personnel shortages have yielded insignificant results; women continue to constitute almost 100 percent of all professional nurses. Women also continue to represent most of the work force in the shortage-plagued occupation of librarian, as in that of dietitian. (See chart 24.) Yet in libraries, as well as in schools and social agencies, a great many of the administrative and other top-level positions are filled by men.

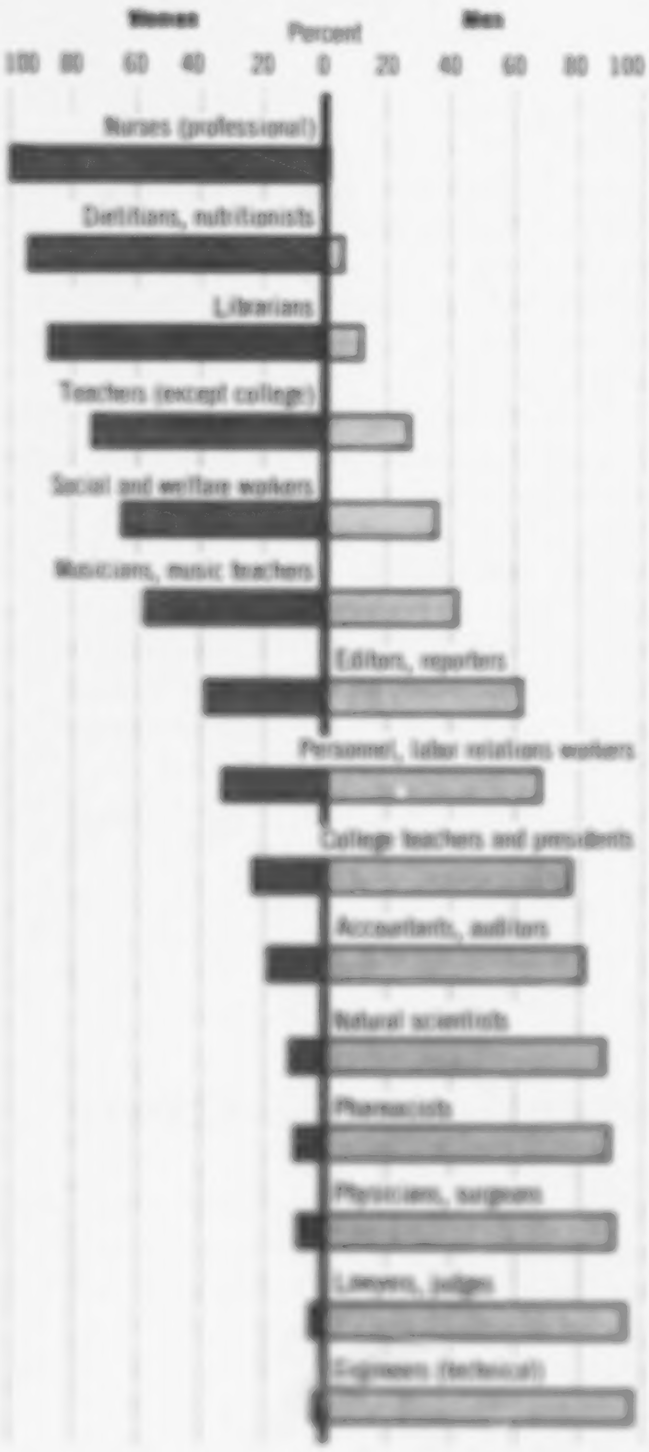
Efforts in the reverse direction, to improve women's representation in professions staffed largely by men, have had somewhat varied but generally limited results. Fields in which women have made some progress in employment include the social sciences, psychology, health technology, physical and occupational therapy, recreation work, editing and reporting, personnel work, accounting, mathematics, and statistics. As employment requirements have grown in these professions, women with the appropriate training and work experience have shared modestly in the employment gains.

In the other major professions—including medicine, dentistry, law, engineering, natural sciences, architecture, and college teaching—the proportion of women remains very small. The few women who have entered these fields have generally been talented and highly motivated, and often conspicuously successful. But their example has not opened the door to wider participation of women in their professions. There were, for example, only 17,000 women physicians in 1965, out of a total of 276,000 physicians in the country. Women's entrance into law has been even slower than into medicine; in 1966, the 8,000 women lawyers represented only about 3 percent of the profession, the same percentage as for the past 15 years.

CHART 24

Women predominate in human service occupations.

Proportion of women and men employed in selected professional occupations, 1960



Source: Department of Labor, based on data from the Department of Commerce.

Factors Affecting Women's Choice of Professions

Why has the concentration of women professional workers in a few occupational fields remained so persistently high—so resistant to efforts aimed at broadening their career choices and opportunities?

The first, and probably the most important, reason that women gravitate into these professions is the culturally inculcated view—shared by employers, the community, and the majority of women—that these are the appropriate fields for members of their sex. Most of the "women's professions" are people oriented, and all focus on service. Women and men tend to have different career values, which influence their choice of a field of professional training. For example, according to a recent analysis of professional workers' ratings of various occupational values, the men most often gave first importance to "creative work," women to "helping others."[33]

This orientation of interests and values is reflected not only in the nature of women's traditional professions but also in the selection of career fields by women who have gone outside these professions. It helps to explain the higher proportion of women in the social than in the natural sciences and in the biological sciences than in chemistry, physics, or engineering.

The influx of professionally trained women into teaching, nursing, and the other traditional fields is not due merely to occupational preference, however. Under present circumstances, these are the fields which women can enter most easily and which raise the fewest obstacles to combining work with family responsibilities. All the women's professions offer jobs throughout the country, in small as well as large communities—a matter of importance to married women who want to go wherever their husband's job is located. Part-time employment is often feasible in these occupations, and in teaching the work schedule and long vacation periods fit in well with married women's home obligations. Still more important, these occupations can generally be entered without graduate education. Though a master's degree is essential for many positions, it can usually be obtained after entrance into the profession. Doctoral degrees are not required, though they may be preferred for top-level positions—the kind generally filled by men.

In contrast, professions such as law, medicine, and college teaching customarily demand a commitment of time and energy and a continuity of employment which may be very difficult for married women. They also require prolonged postgraduate education, likely to involve much more serious problems for young women than for young men.

Women still lag far behind men in achieving advanced degrees. In March 1968, nearly as large a proportion of the women as of the men in the labor force had completed 4 years of college (between 7 and 8 percent in each case). But only about half as large a proportion of women had completed 5 or more years (3 percent of the women, compared with 6 percent of the men).

Obstacles on the path to graduate education for women include home responsibilities, custom, public attitudes, limited career aspirations, and women's special difficulty in obtaining financial support. Since many of the women who are potential graduate students are married, part-time study might help to solve their problem. Yet most fellowships, both private and public, are open only to full-time students.

Even with proper educational credentials, women often meet employer resistance in seeking professional employment outside their traditional fields. Employers' frequent reluctance to hire women stems, at least in part, from the belief that they may stop work after only a few months or years because of family responsibilities and that business clients and the public prefer to deal with men. In addition, there is often outright preference for men in positions of prestige and responsibility. Despite recent Federal and State legislation forbidding discrimination in employment on the basis of sex, many women still hesitate to prepare for professions now dominated by men, where they envisage possible rejection or great difficulty in entering and advancing in their professions.

Need for Broader Professional Opportunities

It is evident that the obstacles to change in the pattern of women's professional employment are complex and deep-rooted. But it is essential to promote broader utilization of college-educated women for two reasons—the prospective supply-and-demand situation, referred to earlier, and the need to come closer, in both letter and spirit, to equal employment opportunity for women.

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[33] Deborah David, "Career Patterns and Values: A Study of Men and Women in Scientific, Professional, and Technical Occupations" (New York: Columbia University, under grant from the Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, in process).

The magnitude of employment demand for women in their traditional professions will be much restricted during the next 10 years by the leveling off of employment requirements in school teaching. It may be affected also, though certainly to a lesser extent, by the movement of men into teaching and social work, major women's professions.

Yet the number of women seeking a college education is rising rapidly—faster than the comparable figure for men. Women enrolled in college for the first time constituted 43 percent of all first-time enrollees of both sexes in 1968, compared with 40 percent in 1958. The total number of women college students rose to 2.8 million in the fall of 1968, about 2½ times the number 10 years before.

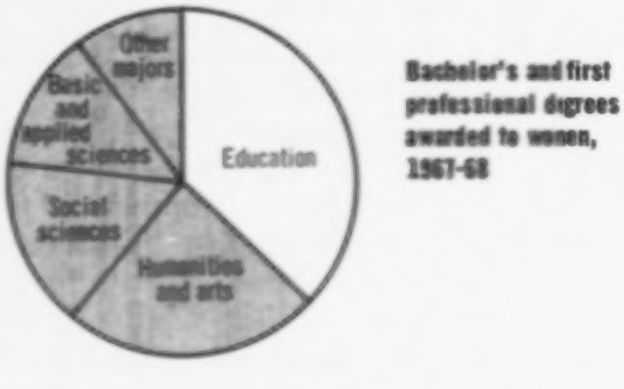
In addition, a slow but steady rise is occurring in the number of women pursuing graduate studies. Between the 1957–58 and 1967–68 academic years, the proportion of women among graduate degree recipients rose from 33 to 36 percent of those earning master's degrees, and from 11 to 13 percent of those earning doctorates.

The interest of college women in utilizing their education in paid employment has recently been noticeably intensified among women 25 to 34 years of age. The proportion of this group in the work force jumped from 45 to 55 percent between 1959 and 1968. This increase probably relates as much to lower birth rates and women's higher job aspirations as to the availability of jobs for which they qualify.

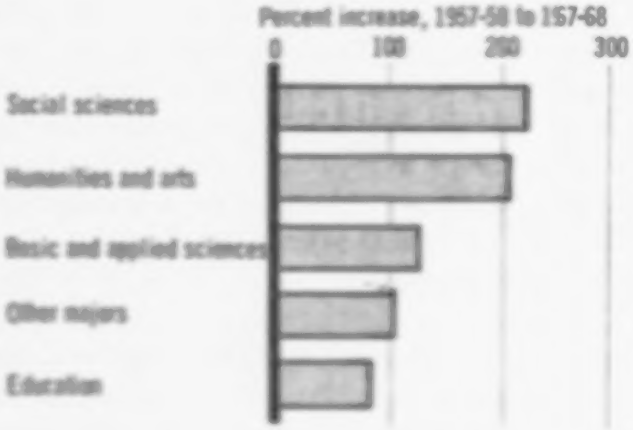
The recent broadening of young women's fields of academic preparation is one development favoring wider professional opportunities for them. The largest group (over a third of all those earning bachelor's and first professional degrees in 1967–68) still major in education. But the numbers majoring in the social sciences and humanities and even the basic and applied sciences have risen much faster than the number of education majors over the past 10 years (as shown in chart 25). Coupled with the increase in postgraduate education of women, this shift in fields of study should mean that increasing numbers of young women will be prepared for and seeking positions in fields such as computer programing, journalism, biological science research, and college teaching

CHART 25

Education continues to be the leading undergraduate major of women...



but the numbers of women earning degrees in other fields are rising rapidly.



Source: Department of Labor, based on data from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Pressure on employers to accept women on an equal basis in these and other professional occupations has, of course, been increased by the equal employment opportunity legislation. Women's organizations and agencies have long supported such legislation and are working for its extension into areas not yet covered. They also support efforts which could lead to greater breadth of occupational choice among women, including wider dissemination of occupational outlook information, more positive counseling of girls about areas of employment other than the traditional women's fields, and increased financial aid to women and girls for educational purposes. Another direction of action has been taken by groups of women sociologists, psychologists, and political scientists, who are working through their professional societies to persuade colleges and universities to improve opportunities for women as faculty members and students in their respective disciplines.

There are indications also that women are moving slowly but steadily into professional and management jobs in private industry. Some major companies report, for example, that they are employing more women in positions such as accountant, systems analyst, marketing representative, chemist, and management trainee, and in other "judgment-level" jobs. Some have recently begun to send recruiters to women's colleges to interview seniors for these jobs.

These beginnings are a development of top importance to the employment prospects for college-educated women and should be encouraged and extended as much as possible. Managerial work is a very large and growing field of employment for men college graduates, but one which only a few women have entered as yet. A major expansion in employment of women in management jobs, as well as in a broad range of professions, will be essential over the next decade to utilize commensurately the rapidly growing force of women college graduates who will seek jobs.

APPENDIXES

A. Guide to Federally Assisted Manpower Training and Support Programs [1]

Program title and date started	Legislative authorization (source of funds)	Administering agencies	Services provided and groups served [2]	Persons served in fiscal 1969 [3]
Adult Basic Education (ABE), 1964.	Adult Basic Education Act of 1966. (Initially, Economic Opportunity Act of 1964.)	Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education (through grants to State and local educational systems).	Provides basic education in classroom setting for persons 16 years of age and older, with less than eighth-grade achievement.	Estimated 523,000 enrollments.
Apprenticeship, 1937.	National Apprenticeship Act of 1937.	Department of Labor, Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training.	Encourages and assists employers and unions in developing apprenticeship programs for youth, including the unemployed and disadvantaged and inmates of correctional institutions.	Estimated 250,000 registered apprentices. June 1969.
Community Action Program (CAP), late 1964.	Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (title II).	Office of Economic Opportunity.	Provides human resource development services, including manpower and related services and adult basic education, for persons below the poverty level (18 years of age and over for basic education).	108,000 enrollments in training and job placements; estimated 350,000 additional persons furnished manpower-related services.
Concentrated Employment Program (CEP), May 1967.	Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962.	Department of Labor. (Local prime sponsors are usually Community Action Agencies.)	Provides a coordinated program of manpower and supportive services for hard-core unemployed youth and adults in selected areas where they are concentrated.	127,000 first-time enrollments.
Employment Assistance for Indians, 1952.	Adult Vocational Training Act for Indians of 1956 and appropriations legislation of 1921.	Department of Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs.	Provides vocational, apprenticeship, and on-the-job training and job placement assistance for Indians 18 years of age and over residing on or near reservations.	11,300 family units.
Federal-State employment service system, 1933.	Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 and Social Security Act of 1935.	Department of Labor.	Recruits, tests, refers to training, and places job applicants; enhances the employability of disadvantaged persons; provides job market information. Serves entire labor force but focuses on the unemployed.	9,963,000 job applicants.

See footnotes at end of table.

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A. Guide to Federally Assisted Manpower Training and Support Programs [1]—Continued

Program title and date started	Legislative authorization (source of funds)	Administering agencies	Services provided and groups served [2]	Persons served in fiscal 1969 [3]
Job Corps, January 1965.	Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (title IA).	Office of Economic Opportunity until delegated to Department of Labor, July 1, 1969.	Assists low-income disadvantaged youth 16 to 21 years of age, who require a change of environment to profit from training, to become more responsible, employable, and productive citizens through a residential program of intensive education, skill training, and related services.	53,000 first-time enrollments.
Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS), March 1968.	Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (title II) and Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (title IB).	Cooperative arrangement between Department of Labor and National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB).	Encourages private industry to hire, train, retain, and upgrade hard-core unemployed and underemployed 18 years of age and over. Initially limited to major metropolitan areas but expanding to nationwide basis in fiscal 1970.	51,200 hired under contract with the Department of Labor; 119,200 noncontract hires.
MDTA institutional training, August 1962.	Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (title II).	Department of Labor; Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.	Provides occupational training or retraining in a classroom setting for unemployed and underemployed persons 16 years of age and over, at least two-thirds of them disadvantaged. Eligible persons receive training, subsistence, and transportation allowances.	135,000 first-time enrollments.
MDTA on-the-job training (OJT), August 1962.	Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (title II).	Department of Labor; Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, when projects include related classroom instruction.	Provides instruction combined with supervised work at the jobsite, under contracts with public and private employers, for unemployed and underemployed persons 16 years of age and over, at least two-thirds of them disadvantaged. Preference given to persons at least 18 years of age.	85,000 first-time enrollments.
MDTA part-time and other-than-skill training, last half of 1967.	Manpower Development and Training Act (title II) as amended in 1966.	Department of Labor; Department of Health, Education,and Welfare.	Provides upgrade training and training in job-related requirements, such as communication skills, work habits, and interpersonal relations for underemployed persons 16 years of age and over.	Included in MDTA institutional enrollments.

See footnotes at end of table.

A. Guide to Federally Assisted Manpower Training and Support Programs [1]—Continued

Program title and date started	Legislative authorization (source of funds)	Administering agencies	Services provided and groups served [2]	Persons served in fiscal 1969 [3]
MDTA training for inmates of correctional institutions (pilot program), August 1968.	Manpower Development and Training Act (title II) as amended in 1966.	Department of Labor; Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.	Provides training, related supportive services, job placement assistance (including bonding), and followup for inmates of local, State, and Federal correctional institutions whose scheduled release follows completion of training by no more than 6 months. Some projects provide incentive and dependents' allowances.	Included in MDTA institutional enrollments (approximately 3,000).
MDTA training in redevelopment areas, 1961.	Manpower Development and Training Act (title II) as amended in 1965. (Initially, Area Redevelopment Act of 1961.)	Department of Labor; Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Department of Commerce.	Provides classroom and on-the-job training, associated with area economic development, for unemployed and underemployed residents of redevelopment areas designated by the Economic Development Administration.	Included in MDTA institutional and OJT enrollments (approximately 17,000).
Model Cities, 1966.	Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966 (title I).	Department of Housing and Urban Development. (Services also supplied by other agencies, principally Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Office of Economic Opportunity; and Department of Labor.)	Improves the environment and general welfare of residents of designated urban poverty areas having a high incidence of disadvantaged persons. Usually includes manpower services.	Program largely in planning phase in fiscal 1969.
Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC): in-school, summer, and out-of-school programs, January 1965.	Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (title IB).	Department of Labor.	Encourages disadvantaged youth of high school age (14 to 21) to continue in or return to school by providing paid work experience. Emphasis shifting to job preparation, especially in out-of-school program. New design for out-of-school program limited to 16- and 17-year-old dropouts.	504,100 total first-time enrollments: 84,300 in-school; 345,300 summer; 74,500 out-of-school.

See footnotes at end of table.

A. Guide to Federally Assisted Manpower Training and Support Programs [1]—Continued

Program title and date started	Legislative authorization (source of funds)	Administering agencies	Services provided and groups served [2]	Persons served in fiscal 1969 [3]
New Careers, first half of 1967. (To be absorbed by Public Service Careers Program during fiscal 1970.)	Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (title IB) as amended in 1966.	Department of Labor.	Prepares disadvantaged adults and out-of-school youth for careers in human service fields (e.g., health and education) through work experience, education, and training.	3,800 first-time enrollments.
Operation Mainstream, December 1965.	Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (title IB) as amended in 1965.	Department of Labor.	Provides counseling, basic education, and work experience for chronically unemployed adults in newly created jobs in community betterment and beautification, mainly in rural areas.	11,300 first-time enrollments.
Project 100,000, October 1966.	Military Service Acts.	Department of Defense.	Qualifies men with low academic achievement or remediable physical defects for military service who would not have been accepted except for lowering of entrance requirements.	103,000 served.
Public Service Careers (PSC), early in 1970.	Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (title IB) as amended in 1966 and Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (title II).	Department of Labor.	Secures, within merit principles, permanent employment in public service agencies of disadvantaged, unemployed youth and adults and stimulates upgrading of current employees, thereby meeting public sector manpower needs.	New program in fiscal 1970; 27,800 training opportunities budgeted.
Special Impact, first half of 1968.	Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (title ID) as amended in 1966 and 1967.	Office of Economic Opportunity. (Delegated to Department of Labor prior to July 1969.)	Provides manpower training as a component of economic and community development for poor and unemployed persons in selected urban poverty areas.	2,700 first-time enrollments.

See footnotes at end of table.

A. Guide to Federally Assisted Manpower Training and Support Programs [1]—Continued

Program title and date started	Legislative authorization (source of funds)	Administering agencies	Services provided and groups served [2]	Persons served in fiscal 1969 [3]
Transition, January 1968.	National Defense Act of 1916.	Department of Defense with cooperating agencies: Department of Labor (MDTA); Department of Commerce; Department of Justice; Civil Service Commission; Post Office Department; Veterans Administration.	Provides counseling, basic education, skill training, and placement assistance in civilian employment for enlisted personnel with approximately 6 months of active duty remaining. Priority given those with job handicaps. Participation voluntary.	66,600 trained; 302,000 counseled.
Vocational Education, 1917.	Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 (substantially amended in 1946) and Vocational Education Act of 1963 (substantially amended in 1968).	Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education (through grants to State school systems).	Provides vocational training, primarily in a classroom setting, full or part time, for youth and adults, in or out of regular public schools. New emphasis on the poor and disadvantaged.	Estimated 8,034,000 enrollments: secondary schools, 4,344,000; postsecondary schools, 693,000; adults, 2,997,000.
Vocational Rehabilitation, 1920.	Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920 (substantially amended in 1943, 1954, 1965, and 1968).	Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.	Provides intensive rehabilitation services to enable youth and adults who are physically or mentally handicapped to obtain jobs commensurate with their maximum capabilities.	781,000 persons served; 241,400 persons rehabilitated.
Work Incentive (WIN), first half of 1968. (Replaced Work-Experience and Training Program under the EOA, title V, which operated from 1965 into fiscal 1969.)	Social Security Act of 1935 (title IVC) as amended in 1967.	Department of Labor. (Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is responsible for referral of enrollees and for furnishing social services during enrollment.)	Provides work, training, child care, and related services designed to move into productive employment employable persons on rolls of the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) and AFDC–Unemployed Parents programs.	80,600 first-time enrollments.

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[1] Includes primarily those Federal programs aimed at assisting the unemployed and the poor to obtain satisfactory employment. Some programs have additional objectives such as community betterment or meeting manpower demands in shortage occupations. Omits income maintenance programs such as unemployment insurance and workmen's compensation.

[2] "Disadvantaged" means poor, not having suitable employment, and either (1) a school dropout, (2) a member of a minority, (3) under 22 years of age, (4) 45 years of age or over, or (5) handicapped. For a discussion of the poverty standard, see the chapter on Employment and Poverty.

[3] The intent of this column is to show the general magnitudes of programs. Some entries are based on enrollment records; others are estimates.

B. Job Matching and Labor Market Information Programs

One of the 1968 amendments to the Manpower Development and Training Act directed the Secretary of Labor to "develop a comprehensive system of labor market information . . . develop and publish on a regular basis information on available job opportunities . . ." and "develop and establish a program for matching the qualifications of unemployed, underemployed, and low-income persons with employer requirements and job opportunities . . . ." The information and the activities were to be developed "on a national, State, local, or other appropriate basis." In developing the job matching program, the Secretary was directed further to "make maximum possible use of electronic data processing and telecommunications systems for the storage, retrieval, and communication of job and worker information."

In these new amendments to the MDTA, the Congress was seeking to increase the efficiency of the labor market and, in particular, to open up more employment opportunities for the disadvantaged by improving both the information and the techniques used by the Federal-State employment service system to match workers with jobs. Moreover, it is clear that the computerized job matching and labor market information functions described in the act are interdependent. The availability of electronic data processing equipment for job matching provides numerous opportunities for using job market information more effectively in the placement process. It can shorten the time needed to get useful data to the employment interviewer or counselor involved. Information can be presented to the counselor in an immediately usable form without the need for extensive reading from a variety of sources. Similarly, the computerization of employment service files can provide a wealth of data which can be used to generate more intensive job market information than is currently provided.

The first year's progress in carrying out these directives, laid down by the Congress in section 106 of the 1968 MDTA amendments, is reported here under three headings which together comprise the major thrusts in developing a concerted approach to a comprehensive labor market information and job matching program. Due to delays in Congressional action on appropriations, no funds had been appropriated as of December 1969 for these purposes, although considerable planning had been accomplished.

COMPUTER-ASSISTED MANPOWER SYSTEMS

The steady advance of computer technology in recent years and growing concern with the problems of the hard-to-employ have stimulated efforts to improve labor market services through computerized systems for matching workers with jobs. Several State employment services have been experimenting with computer-assisted matching systems for a number of years. The Department of Labor began serious consideration of a national, automated job matching system in the early 1960's. The U.S. Employment Service Task Force, headed by Dean George P. Shultz of the University of Chicago, recommended that the employment service explore the feasibility of using automatic data processing in its placement service operations. Later, the Department of Labor commissioned a study to help design a national job matching system and to assist in developing pilot job matching projects in several States.

The Department's goal was strengthened by the 1968 amendments to the MDTA in section 106, which provided the legislative mandate for a national program of job matching and related manpower services backed up by a comprehensive labor market information system.

This goal was further reinforced and brought closer to realization early in 1969 by Presidential directive. Shortly after his inauguration, President Nixon directed the creation of a "National Computer Job Bank," utilizing existing computer technology. This concept also has been incorporated in the proposed Manpower Training Act of 1969 submitted by the Administration.

Because of the difficulty of developing a truly effective computerized man-job matching system, the Department is following a two-phase approach to the problem: implementing job banks or computerized listings of available employment opportunities to meet immediate needs in major metropolitan areas, and testing a variety of experimental man-job matching system designs to determine which design or combination of designs should be promoted as the model for the national network.

Job Banks in the Cities

The first job bank became operational in Baltimore, Md., in May 1968. Designed to insure exposure of job applicants to all available job openings in the city and, at the same time, to coordinate job development and referral contacts with employers and diverse community agencies, the experiment met with widespread acclaim.

Job orders are listed on a computer by the State employment service, and a daily book listing current orders is printed and distributed to local offices and cooperating community agencies. Referral of applicants is controlled by telephone from a central point to assure that jobseekers are not sent out in excessive numbers or referred to jobs already filled. One advantage of the system is its simplicity. An employment office can be established anywhere with a job bank book and a telephone. One of the most promising results from the Baltimore Job Bank has been an increase in the proportion of placements of disadvantaged applicants from less than 20 percent to nearly 40 percent of total placements.

With the success of the Baltimore model, the job bank concept is being exported to other cities. Nine additional job banks were established in 1969, covering Washington, D.C., Portland (Oregon), Seattle, St. Louis, Hartford, Chicago, Atlanta, Pittsburgh, and San Diego. It is anticipated that 55 job banks will be in operation by mid-1970. An evaluation system which derives all its data from regular reports developed by the job bank itself, and requires for comparison only low-cost pre-job bank data, has been devised and informally presented to six of the early job bank cities. This evaluation system will be required of all job bank cities by February 1970.

However, job banks are important not only in terms of their immediate accomplishments, but also because they serve as a logical first step in the establishment of more complex man-job matching systems. Computerization of job-order information is a part of the broader task. Establishment of a job bank requires a combination of automatic data processing and employment service talents at the State level similar to that which will be required later for adaptation and installation of a man-job matching system. Moreover, through the changes they engender in employment service operations and procedures, job banks prepare local office staff for some of the innovative approaches and new concepts they will be required to work with under a statewide computer-assisted matching system.

Experimental State Matching Systems

As part of the long-range program to develop a network of computer-assisted systems for matching workers and jobs, the Department of Labor is working with State employment services in four States to test experimental designs.

The Utah system, first of the experimental State programs, became operational in January 1969. Both the applicant file and job-order file are computer programed, and the search strategy is based upon the coding of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (DOT) plus various applicant and order characteristics—although a "complex search" upon applicant and order characteristics alone can be made overnight.

The Wisconsin system, which began operation in the fall of 1969 in two local offices, uses DOT worker trait groups plus a variety of occupational descriptors to permit a computer search which will weight the selection factors and give an "index of fit" for the best five job-man matches.

The California system (a revision of Project LINCS) is limited to matching applicants and jobs in the professional, technical, and managerial field. A significant feature is the development of a computer-resident, controlled vocabulary accessed by word descriptors rather than by DOT codes. This system is now undergoing testing and "debugging."

Phase 1 of the New York system covers the full spectrum of occupations except professional, technical, and managerial. The computer contains a job-order file only and searches against that file on behalf of applicants. Search strategy in the early stages of the system is based heavily on DOT codes, but ultimately it should be possible to screen against a large number of weighted occupational and employment factors.

In addition to these four systems that became operational in selected local offices during 1969, Maryland is beginning to plan conversion of its

Baltimore Job Bank to a statewide matching system. This effort will attempt to integrate the best elements of the four experimental systems. At the same time it will be the pioneer demonstration of the feasibility of moving to a matching system through the intermediate step of the job bank, rather than directly from a manual system.

INITIATING THE JOB-VACANCY PROGRAM

Because of the wide range of potential uses in economic analysis and improvement of labor market efficiency—both nationally and locally—the development of comprehensive data on the number and characteristics of job vacancies has been intensively investigated for several years and given high priority by the Department of Labor. Information on job vacancies will be significant in the development of economic policy since this is a measure of the amount or character of the unfilled demand for labor. Such information will also be useful in the development of manpower programs in individual areas, since the occupational composition of vacancies suggests fields of work in which additional training programs might be mounted; and the comparison of the data on job vacancies and data on unemployment and labor turnover may be useful in determining the approximate mix of various manpower programs. In employment service operations, job-vacancy information further serves to identify the industries most likely to provide opportunities for employment. In addition, improved analysis and understanding of basic labor market relationships extend beyond the direct manpower uses—to develop appropriate economic policies, such as those designed to counteract inflationary or deflationary pressures in the economy.

As with any new program, considerable research and developmental work are planned to insure that the job-vacancy data are accurate and representative and to determine their relationship to other labor market measures. During the mid-1960's exploratory efforts focused on conceptual and feasibility issues dealing with such aspects as the use made of job-vacancy data in other major industrial countries, the mechanics of collection and problems of sample design, availability of employer records, extent of employee cooperation, and most importantly, conceptual and definitional problems.

On the basis of the exploratory programs, the Department of Labor in early 1969 began the regular collection of job-vacancy data in 50 metropolitan areas. Designed to provide a large amount of occupational, geographic, and industrial data and to facilitate the future expansion of its coverage as well, the program is being developed according to the following plan.

At the local level, monthly data on job opportunities will be surveyed in 50 metropolitan areas. Estimates of job openings for all nonagricultural industries, by industry, will be prepared monthly for 26 major metropolitan areas, supplemented by quarterly occupational estimates in 17 of these areas. In addition, monthly estimates of the number of openings in the manufacturing and mining industries will be developed for 24 other metropolitan areas and seven States.

At the national level, information on job vacancies eventually will be available monthly for the manufacturing, mining, and communications industries. The collection of the data is in most cases connected with the labor turnover statistics program. Because of the cost and difficulty of collecting occupational job-vacancy data, such data will not be included initially in national estimates.

Despite the usual start-up problems that accompany the development of most new programs, the job opportunities program has made encouraging progress during the year. All States began the collection of manufacturing and mining data in January 1969. By midyear nearly 90 percent of the firms formerly reporting labor turnover were also reporting their job openings as well. The solicitation of reports in the nonmanufacturing industries in the 26 areas started later and, in general, produced a lower yield than in the manufacturing industries.

The data generated by the program are currently (in early 1970) being evaluated by the Department of Labor. A preliminary review of the data and of the progress of the program in the cooperating State employment security agencies indicates that not all of the area data will be validated. The development of acceptable estimates for some of the program areas has been slowed by such problems as delays in developing operational computer programs, nonresponse of key firms, and the difficulties experienced by State agencies in recruiting and holding needed

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personnel. The Department of Labor is working with the State agencies to overcome these problems.

The Department plans to publish the first job-vacancy figures in early 1970 for those areas which have adequate data at that time. Subsequent publication for these and other areas which bring their statistical estimates up to acceptable standards will be undertaken by the State employment services.

DEVELOPING A LABOR MARKET INFORMATION SYSTEM

In early 1968, a U.S. Employment Service Advisory Committee headed by Dr. Arnold Weber recommended the development of a comprehensive system of labor market information ". . . responsive to the needs of the primary users, the objectives of national manpower programs, and the continuous changes in the labor market environment." In pursuit of this goal, the development of the outline of a comprehensive system of information on manpower and the labor market has been a task of a Department of Labor committee for the past year. While no complete system has yet been developed, its outlines have emerged, and it is possible to see the way in which existing series of statistics or information would fit into the proposed system and some of the major gaps that would result. A labor market information system should have certain characteristics:

1. It should provide essential information on the operation of labor markets necessary to accomplish such purposes as measurement of various sectors of the economy, both industrial and geographic, in terms of manpower or employment and related data; measurement of the welfare of workers in terms of employment, earnings, hours of work, and working conditions; planning in the field of manpower, including projections of future manpower requirements and supply; information on unemployment and its incidence and duration for different groups in the population; information on other employment-related problems such as underemployment, barriers to employment, part-time employment, seasonal employment, or employment at low rates of pay.

2. A system of labor market information should provide data not only at the national level but also for States and local areas. Since the provision of statistics and other information for a large number of local areas or even States can be prohibitively expensive, maximum use has to be made of national data or patterns applied to State or local situations. For the same reason, existing data systems, including tax returns, operations of the public employment offices, unemployment insurance activities, and other administrative statistical programs, should be utilized.

3. A system of labor market information should provide information that is clearly and simply adaptable to the needs of various users, including industry, labor, manpower administrators, public employment officers, educational officials responsible for planning or for vocational guidance, and workers. This means that attention has to be paid to the specific needs of these various users and to their understanding of the problems so that the information can be presented in a manner they can understand and apply to their needs.

Research and Statistics at the National Level

Although not specifically linked to the provisions of the MDTA, a number of new programs and expansions of existing programs in 1969 have enlarged significantly the activities concerned with labor market information. In the field of manpower requirements for planning programs of education and training, the Department of Labor completed two publications in the past year which are useful in applying projections of manpower requirements to educational planning. Based on extensive research on economic growth, technological change, and occupational outlook, the Bureau of Labor Statistics published (in *Tomorrow's Manpower Needs*) estimates of the number of new workers who will be needed each year in each of 240 occupations.

In order to provide a linkage between the manpower needs estimated in this report and the planning activities of the vocational education system, a report on *Manpower Requirements in Occupations for Which Vocational Education Prepares Workers*, stemming from the joint efforts of the U.S. Office of Education and the Bureau of Labor Statistics, was issued in July 1969. This publication expresses manpower requirements in terms of the number of workers who will be needed annually in fields for which specific types of vocational education curriculums can provide training. Thus, the national manpower requirements in each field for which a vocational education curriculum has been developed are now available to vocational education authorities for reviewing the total vocational education activity in the United States. In August 1969, a joint Office of Education and Labor Department publication, *Vocational Education and Occupations*, was released. This document links vocational-technical instructional programs to the titles and codes in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. It is intended for use as a tool by manpower analysts and vocational educators to help them plan for and gage the effectiveness of vocational-technical instructional programs in relation to the manpower demands of the economy. Copies of the press release on *Tomorrow's Manpower Needs* and the report cited above were sent to State vocational education authorities by the Office of Education.

A systematic body of information on employment by occupation is essential in projections of manpower requirements by occupation, for the measurement of employment trends, the study of the effect of technological change on manpower needs, and for many other research programs relevant to occupations. Limited information is available from the monthly labor force survey, identifying a few occupations. In order to develop more complete and accurate information on more occupations, collecting information from employers is proposed. A beginning was made on a national system of occupation employment statistics some years ago, when the Department initiated surveys of employment of scientific and technical personnel in industry and State and local governments. The surveys in industry have been conducted nearly every year, but those in State and local government agencies have been conducted with less frequency. In 1969 a beginning was made in the development of a program to cover all significant occupations. Surveys were made in the metalworking industries in 1968 and 1969, with a questionnaire especially designed to elicit information on the major metalworking occupations. Similar surveys in the printing, paper, and petroleum refining industries have been in preparation. It is planned to develop the survey techniques and extend their scope so that all industries will be covered.

Information for Local Areas and States

Experience under the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Vocational Education Act has pointed up the need for additional data on which to plan education and training at the State and local levels. In order to plan programs of education and training, information is needed on the number of workers who must be trained for each occupation to meet future manpower needs.

The U.S. Training and Employment Service is developing a manual of instructions for State agencies, *Handbook for Projecting Manpower Requirements and Resources for States and Areas*, which will explain in detail how analysts in State employment agencies can use various methods and sources of data, including the national manpower information presented in *Tomorrow's Manpower Needs*, to develop State and area manpower estimates and projections of future needs. Using the procedures described in the draft *Handbook*, 16 State agencies already have undertaken projections of occupational requirements for their States.

Also in preparation is a companion handbook to be used by the State employment agencies to obtain estimates of the current and anticipated supply of labor, by occupation, for States and local areas. It is expected that the final version of this handbook will be ready for release during the summer of 1970.

A basic source of State and local area employment data is the current employment, hours, and earnings statistics program conducted as a cooperative activity of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Training and Employment Service, and State employment agencies. This system provides monthly national data on employment of nonfarm wage and salary workers, hours, and earnings by detailed industry, and comparable data for all States and for individual metropolitan areas. The data are essential for measuring economic changes in the individual areas, not only in total but by industry; for projecting manpower requirements for each industry based on its national growth; and for many other administrative and economic research purposes.

The number of metropolitan areas covered by the program has slowly expanded in recent years, and by the end of 1969 monthly employment statistics were being published for 209 of the 230 standard metropolitan statistical areas identified by the Bureau of the Budget. The use of the data to provide information on hours and earnings, not only in individual industries but for the whole nonfarm economy, has been progressing. Following the lead of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which developed a national series on hours and earnings in the total private nonfarm economy, one State developed a similar series for its own use within the last year.

Estimates of Labor Force and Unemployment

State and local estimates of unemployment are built on local data on the insured unemployed, to which are added estimates of other categories of the unemployed not included in the count of insured unemployed. These other categories, which amount currently to 65 percent of the total number of unemployed in the Nation as a whole, have been estimated by a variety of means, using national data and ratios. To supplement knowledge of local unemployment developed by these techniques, the Department of Labor has initiated special area tabulations of the data on unemployment coming from the 52,000 households included in the national sample survey of the labor force conducted for the Department by the Bureau of the Census. While the sample in any one metropolitan area or State is not large enough to provide monthly data, consolidation of the data collected for all 12 months of the year has provided estimates with an acceptable degree of accuracy for some areas. These were published (beginning with data for 1967) for 20 of the largest metropolitan areas and for the central cities of 14 of these metropolitan areas. Estimates for the 10 largest States for the year 1968 were also published, as well as data for regions and for the balance of the population outside of metropolitan areas. These data provide an independent estimate not only of total unemployment and labor force but also of the composition of the unemployed by broad age and sex groups and by color, and thus provide additional insight into the characteristics of the unemployed.

Manpower Program Information

The past year saw the development and issuance by the Department of Labor of a new series of reports on the status of manpower work-training programs. These reports, which are available on a national, regional, State, and local basis, are invaluable tools for the planning, execution, and monitoring of program activities at various levels. It is possible for the first time to trace month-by-month trends in the current levels of enrollment in all manpower programs administered by the Department for the Nation as a whole and for regions and States. Data are available which show authorized program levels, cumulative enrollment, and current enrollment for all manpower programs in 92 areas. More detailed data on enrollments by program components at the area level are issued monthly for the Concentrated Employment and Work Incentive Programs.

ESARS (Employment Security Automated Reporting System)

The primary purpose of ESARS is to provide a reporting system based on the characteristics and needs of individuals served rather than upon counts of applicant "transactions." For 36 years, the public employment service offices have used transaction reporting to account for their activities and accomplishments. The measurement of results was based on counts of placements, counseling interviews, tests administered, employer visits, and other actions. Data on the number of people served or the relation of activities to the characteristics and needs of the applicants were not provided routinely. With the availability of information on individuals, ESARS will serve as a statistical base in the development of a comprehensive management information system. This system will include plan of service, cost accounting, and appraisal of Manpower Administration programs at all levels of operation.

New approaches to the establishment of objectives and the measurement of results in terms of the number of individuals served in various target populations have been adopted by the Department of Labor. This, in turn, has required different information and more sophisticated methods of data collection. The amount of detail necessary to measure results in terms of the individuals served has increased greatly. The collection of this tremendous amount of detail can be accomplished only through the utilization of computer technology.

The implementation schedule calls for all States to institute ESARS by July 1, 1970. In order for the States to be in a position to make the shift, a great deal of technical assistance has been provided to State agencies in planning, designing, and installing their automatic data processing capabilities. Their automatic data processing capabilities not only have to be geared to ESARS but also to the automated job bank and job matching systems.

Occupational Classification Systems

Information about the kinds of jobs workers hold is essential to an understanding of the labor market. One of the major keys to such information is the systematic identification and classification of occupations. Two major systems for the classification of occupational data are currently employed by agencies of the Federal Government. The first is that developed by the Bureau of the Census for use in the decennial census, the Current Population Survey, and other demographic surveys. The second is contained in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, developed by the Department of Labor for use in its operating programs. Both systems are widely used outside the agencies that developed them.

The presence of two separate systems for classifying occupations has handicapped the development of an efficient labor market information system. Comprehensive data on occupations that reflect all employed and experienced unemployed persons are generally available only under the system of classification used by the Bureau of the Census. However, the new series on job vacancies described above—as well as data on job applications, job placements, job openings registered with the State employment services, and other operating statistics generated by a number of labor market programs—are generally classified under the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* system.

The interagency Occupational Classification Committee, working under the auspices of the Bureau of the Budget, has set as one of its long-run goals the establishment of a Standard Occupational Classification system. Such a system, it is hoped, will eventually provide a bridge between operational and general-purpose statistical series. As a part of this program, work is going forward on analyzing the relationship between the two systems now in use and on preparing a "convertibility" arrangement that will enable users to transform data classified under one of the systems to the other. The Department of Labor has financed a number of special projects to develop needed information for the Occupational Classification Committee.

Urban Employment Surveys

Another new research program, intended to focus a searching spotlight on the employment problems of people in the poverty areas of large cities, involves surveys of a sample of the households in the poverty areas of each of six large cities—New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, Atlanta, Detroit, and Houston. The interview covers, in addition to many questions on labor force status, information on barriers to employment, attitudes toward work and employment, motivations with respect to training, and other information providing deeper insights into the employment problems of people in these poverty areas. The households are interviewed over the period of a year, and the interviews are accumulated to provide an annual picture of the situation of persons in these areas. It is planned that the survey will continue as an experimental survey, with changes in the questions and survey design from time to time in order to probe more deeply into emerging problems. The survey is accompanied by an experimental program designed to develop questions on new subject areas.

A preliminary report, based on the first 3 months of interviewing, was issued in February 1969, and initial reports on the first year's results were issued in October 1969. These summary reports will be followed by a series of studies of various aspects of employment problems, to be issued from time to time. Some major findings of the surveys, based on the tabulations available so far, are included in the chapter on Employment and Poverty in this report.

STATISTICAL APPENDIX

The Department of Labor is the source of all data in this report unless otherwise specified. Prior to July 1959 the labor force data shown in sections A and B were published by the Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Information on data concepts, methodology, etc. will be found in appropriate publications of the Department, particularly *Employment and Earnings* of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and publications of the Manpower Administration. (See also the brief statement which follows on the historic comparability of the labor force data.) For those series based on samples, attention is invited to the estimates of sampling variability and sample coverage published in *Employment and Earnings*.

This report includes data that have recently become available from the Current Population Survey on employment by occupation and color (table A–10), on unemployment in the 10 largest States (table D–11), and on unemployment in urban poverty neighborhoods (table D–14). A table (G–7) on persons below the poverty level has also been added.

Most time series are shown from the first year for which continuous or relatively continuous data are available, beginning with 1947. Alaska and Hawaii are included unless otherwise noted.

Individual items in the tables may not add to totals because of rounding.

Note on Historic Comparability of Labor Force Statistics

Beginning with data for 1967, the lower age limit for official statistics on persons in the labor force was raised from 14 to 16 years. At the same time, several definitions were sharpened to clear up ambiguities. The principal definitional changes were: (1) Counting as unemployed only persons who were currently available for work and who had engaged in some specific jobseeking activity within the past 4 weeks (an exception to the latter condition is made for persons waiting to start a new job in 30 days or waiting to be recalled from layoff). In the past the current availability test was not applied and the time period for jobseeking was ambiguous; (2) counting as employed persons who were absent from their jobs in the survey week (because of strikes, bad weather, etc.) and who were looking for other jobs. These persons had previously been classified as unemployed; (3) sharpening the questions on hours of work, duration of unemployment, and self-employment in order to increase their reliability.

These changes did not affect the unemployment rate by more than one-fifth of a percentage point in either direction, although the distribution of unemployment by sex was affected. The number of employed was reduced about 1 million because of the exclusion of 14- and 15-year-olds. For persons 16 years and over, the only employment series appreciably affected were those relating to hours of work and class of workers. A detailed discussion of the changes and their effect on the various series is contained in the February 1967 issue of *Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force* (the title of *Employment and Earnings* at that time).

The tables in section A have been revised to exclude 14- and 15-year-olds where possible; otherwise, annual averages for 1966 are shown on both the old and new bases. Overlap averages for 1966, where pertinent, are also shown for the special labor force series in section B.

Prior to the changes introduced in 1967, there were three earlier periods of noncomparability in the labor force data: (1) Beginning 1953, as a result of introducing data from the 1950 census into the estimation procedure, population levels were raised by about 600,000; labor force, total employment, and agricultural employment by about 350,000, primarily affecting the figures for totals and males; other categories were relatively unaffected; (2) beginning 1960, the inclusion of Alaska and Hawaii resulted in an increase of about 500,000 in the population and about 300,000 in the labor force, four-fifths of this in nonagricultural employment; other labor force categories were not appreciably affected; (3) beginning 1962, the introduction of figures from the 1960 census reduced the population by about 50,000, labor force and employment by about 200,000; unemployment totals were virtually unchanged.

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[Numbers in thousands]

Sex and year	Total noninstitutional population	Total labor force, including Armed Forces		Civilian labor force						Not in labor force
					Employed			Unemployed		
		Number	Percent of noninstitutional population	Total	Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries	Number	Percent of labor force	
BOTH SEXES										
1947	103,418	60,941	58.9	59,350	57,039	7,891	49,148	2,311	3.9	42,477
1948	104,527	62,080	59.4	60,621	58,344	7,629	50,711	2,276	3.8	42,447
1949	105,611	62,903	59.6	61,286	57,649	7,656	49,990	3,637	5.9	42,708
1950	106,645	63,858	59.9	62,208	58,920	7,160	51,752	3,288	5.3	42,787
1951	107,721	65,117	60.4	62,017	59,962	6,726	53,230	2,055	3.3	42,604
1952	108,823	65,730	60.4	62,138	60,254	6,501	53,748	1,883	3.0	43,093
1953	110,601	66,560	60.2	63,015	61,181	6,261	54,915	1,834	2.9	44,041
1954	111,671	66,993	60.0	63,643	60,110	6,206	53,898	3,532	5.5	44,678
1955	112,732	68,072	60.4	65,023	62,171	6,449	55,718	2,852	4.4	44,660
1956	113,811	69,409	61.0	66,552	63,802	6,283	57,506	2,750	4.1	44,402
1957	115,065	69,729	60.6	66,929	64,071	5,947	58,123	2,859	4.3	45,336
1958	116,363	70,275	60.4	67,639	63,036	5,586	57,450	4,602	6.8	46,088
1959	117,881	70,921	60.2	68,369	64,630	5,565	59,065	3,740	5.5	46,960
1960	119,759	72,142	60.2	69,628	65,778	5,458	60,318	3,852	5.5	47,617
1961	121,343	73,031	60.2	70,459	65,746	5,200	60,546	4,714	6.7	48,312
1962	122,981	73,442	59.7	70,614	66,702	4,944	61,759	3,911	5.5	49,539
1963	125,154	74,571	59.6	71,833	67,762	4,687	63,076	4,070	5.7	50,583
1964	127,224	75,830	59.6	73,091	69,305	4,523	64,782	3,786	5.2	51,394
1965	129,236	77,178	59.7	74,455	71,088	4,361	66,726	3,366	4.5	52,058
1966	131,180	78,893	60.1	75,770	72,895	3,979	68,915	2,875	3.8	52,288
1967	133,319	80,793	60.6	77,347	74,372	3,844	70,527	2,975	3.8	52,527
1968	135,562	82,272	60.7	78,737	75,920	3,817	72,103	2,817	3.6	53,291
1969	137,841	84,239	61.1	80,733	77,902	3,606	74,296	2,831	3.5	53,602
MALE										
1947	50,968	44,258	86.8	42,686	40,994	6,643	34,351	1,692	4.0	6,710
1948	51,439	44,729	87.0	43,286	41,726	6,358	35,366	1,559	3.6	6,710
1949	51,922	45,097	86.9	43,498	40,926	6,342	34,581	2,572	5.9	6,825
1950	52,352	45,446	86.8	43,819	41,580	6,001	35,573	2,239	5.1	6,906
1951	52,788	46,063	87.3	43,001	41,780	5,533	36,243	1,221	2.8	6,725
1952	53,248	46,416	87.2	42,869	41,684	5,389	36,292	1,185	2.8	6,832
1953	54,248	47,131	86.9	43,633	42,431	5,253	37,175	1,202	2.8	7,117
1954	54,706	47,275	86.4	43,965	41,620	5,200	36,414	2,344	5.3	7,431
1955	55,122	47,488	86.2	44,475	42,621	5,265	37,354	1,854	4.2	7,634
1956	55,547	47,914	86.3	45,091	43,380	5,039	38,334	1,711	3.8	7,633
1957	56,082	47,964	85.5	45,197	43,357	4,824	38,532	1,841	4.1	8,118
1958	56,640	48,126	85.0	45,521	42,423	4,596	37,827	3,098	6.8	8,514
1959	57,312	48,405	84.5	45,886	43,466	4,532	38,934	2,420	5.3	8,907
1960	58,144	48,870	84.0	46,388	43,904	4,472	39,431	2,486	5.4	9,274
1961	58,826	49,193	83.6	46,653	43,656	4,298	39,359	2,997	6.4	9,633
1962	59,626	49,395	82.8	46,600	44,177	4,069	40,108	2,423	5.2	10,231
1963	60,627	49,835	82.2	47,129	44,657	3,809	40,849	2,472	5.2	10,792
1964	61,556	50,387	81.9	47,679	45,474	3,691	41,782	2,205	4.6	11,169
1965	62,473	50,946	81.5	48,255	46,340	3,547	42,792	1,914	4.0	11,527
1966	63,351	51,560	81.4	48,471	46,919	3,243	43,675	1,551	3.2	11,792
1967	64,316	52,398	81.5	48,987	47,479	3,164	44,315	1,508	3.1	11,919
1968	65,345	53,030	81.2	49,533	48,114	3,157	44,957	1,419	2.9	12,315
1969	66,365	53,688	80.9	50,221	48,818	2,963	45,854	1,403	2.8	12,677
FEMALE										
1947	52,450	16,683	31.8	16,664	16,045	1,248	14,797	619	3.7	35,767
1948	53,068	17,351	32.7	17,335	16,618	1,271	15,345	717	4.1	35,737
1949	53,689	17,806	33.2	17,788	16,723	1,314	15,409	1,065	6.0	35,883
1950	54,293	18,412	33.9	18,389	17,340	1,159	16,179	1,049	5.7	35,881
1951	54,933	19,054	34.7	19,016	18,182	1,193	16,987	834	4.4	35,879
1952	55,575	19,314	34.8	19,269	18,570	1,112	17,456	698	3.6	36,261
1953	56,353	19,429	34.5	19,382	18,750	1,008	17,740	632	3.3	36,924
1954	56,965	19,718	34.6	19,678	18,490	1,006	17,484	1,188	6.0	37,247
1955	57,610	20,584	35.7	20,548	19,550	1,184	18,364	998	4.9	37,026
1956	58,264	21,495	36.9	21,461	20,422	1,244	19,172	1,039	4.8	36,769
1957	58,983	21,765	36.9	21,732	20,714	1,123	19,591	1,018	4.7	37,218
1958	59,723	22,149	37.1	22,118	20,613	990	19,623	1,504	6.8	37,574
1959	60,569	22,516	37.2	22,483	21,164	1,033	20,131	1,320	5.9	38,053
1960	61,615	23,272	37.8	23,240	21,874	986	20,887	1,366	5.9	38,343
1961	62,517	23,838	38.1	23,806	22,090	902	21,187	1,717	7.2	38,679
1962	63,355	24,047	38.0	24,014	22,525	875	21,651	1,488	6.2	39,308
1963	64,527	24,736	38.3	24,704	23,105	878	22,227	1,598	6.5	39,791
1964	65,668	25,443	38.7	25,412	23,831	832	23,000	1,581	6.2	40,225
1965	66,763	26,232	39.3	26,200	24,748	814	23,934	1,452	5.5	40,531
1966	67,829	27,333	40.3	27,299	25,976	736	25,240	1,324	4.8	40,496
1967	69,003	28,395	41.2	28,360	26,893	680	26,212	1,468	5.2	40,608
1968	70,217	29,242	41.6	29,204	27,807	660	27,147	1,397	4.8	40,978
1969	71,476	30,551	42.7	30,512	29,084	643	28,441	1,428	4.7	40,924

Table A-2. Total Labor Force (Including Armed Forces) and Labor Force Participation Rates [1] for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Sex and year	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
	Number in total labor force (thousands)									
MALE										
1947	44,258	1,169	1,884	5,094	10,598	9,603	7,882	5,650	2,376	586
1948	44,729	1,168	1,834	5,117	10,758	9,723	7,975	5,770	2,385	572
1949	45,097	1,108	1,791	5,198	10,886	9,860	8,043	5,755	2,454	577
1950	45,446	1,079	1,742	5,224	11,044	9,952	8,152	5,800	2,453	623
1951	46,063	1,148	1,717	5,267	11,269	10,056	8,254	5,882	2,469	611
1952	46,416	1,154	1,658	5,223	11,446	10,189	8,374	5,957	2,415	585
1953	47,131	1,125	1,652	5,084	11,469	10,669	8,612	5,979	2,544	561
1954	47,275	1,073	1,653	4,959	11,467	10,748	8,743	6,110	2,525	572
1955	47,488	1,130	1,682	4,851	11,464	10,833	8,877	6,125	2,526	566
1956	47,914	1,216	1,731	4,814	11,359	10,926	9,044	6,224	2,604	665
1957	47,964	1,207	1,778	4,781	11,247	11,046	9,201	6,227	2,477	685
1958	48,126	1,197	1,754	4,849	11,108	11,161	9,369	6,308	2,379	676
1959	48,405	1,256	1,786	4,987	10,981	11,235	9,488	6,350	2,321	676
1960	48,870	1,335	1,849	5,089	10,930	11,340	9,634	6,405	2,287	637
1961	49,193	1,271	1,958	5,187	10,880	11,403	9,741	6,535	2,220	725
1962	49,395	1,225	2,027	5,272	10,720	11,542	9,803	6,565	2,241	780
1963	49,835	1,372	2,034	5,471	10,635	11,589	9,923	6,679	2,135	738
1964	50,387	1,549	2,026	5,704	10,636	11,559	10,043	6,745	2,123	731
1965	50,946	1,577	2,254	5,926	10,653	11,504	10,131	6,768	2,131	759
1966	51,560	1,656	2,467	6,139	10,761	11,395	10,202	6,852	2,089	790
1967	52,398	1,695	2,519	6,546	11,001	11,282	10,295	6,944	2,118	838
1968	53,030	1,713	2,482	6,788	11,376	11,122	10,364	7,030	2,154	857
1969	53,688	1,800	2,482	7,088	11,706	10,946	10,432	7,062	2,170	874
FEMALE										
1947	16,683	643	1,192	2,725	3,750	3,676	2,730	1,522	445	232
1948	17,351	671	1,164	2,721	3,940	3,804	2,973	1,565	514	248
1949	17,806	648	1,165	2,662	4,006	3,993	3,100	1,678	556	242
1950	18,412	611	1,103	2,681	4,101	4,166	3,328	1,839	584	268
1951	19,054	663	1,100	2,670	4,305	4,307	3,535	1,923	551	255
1952	19,314	706	1,052	2,519	4,335	4,444	3,637	2,032	590	244
1953	19,429	656	1,057	2,447	4,175	4,668	3,682	2,048	693	239
1954	19,718	620	1,068	2,441	4,224	4,715	3,824	2,164	666	253
1955	20,584	641	1,088	2,458	4,261	4,808	4,155	2,391	780	258
1956	21,495	736	1,132	2,467	4,285	5,036	4,407	2,610	821	313
1957	21,765	716	1,150	2,453	4,263	5,121	4,618	2,631	813	332
1958	22,149	685	1,153	2,510	4,201	5,190	4,862	2,727	822	333
1959	22,516	765	1,137	2,484	4,096	5,232	5,083	2,883	836	349
1960	23,272	805	1,257	2,590	4,140	5,308	5,280	2,986	907	347
1961	23,838	774	1,374	2,708	4,151	5,394	5,405	3,105	926	419
1962	24,047	741	1,411	2,814	4,111	5,479	5,383	3,198	911	460
1963	24,736	850	1,388	2,970	4,181	5,604	5,505	3,332	905	405
1964	25,443	950	1,371	3,220	4,187	5,618	5,682	3,447	966	411
1965	26,232	954	1,565	3,375	4,336	5,724	5,714	3,587	976	421
1966	27,333	1,054	1,826	3,601	4,516	5,761	5,885	3,727	963	481
1967	28,395	1,076	1,821	3,981	4,853	5,847	5,986	3,855	978	539
1968	29,242	1,130	1,818	4,251	5,104	5,869	6,132	3,938	999	559
1969	30,551	1,240	1,869	4,615	5,401	5,905	6,388	4,077	1,056	573
	Labor force participation rate									
MALE										
1947	86.8	52.2	80.5	84.9	95.8	98.0	95.5	89.6	47.8	27.7
1948	87.0	52.4	79.9	85.7	96.1	98.0	95.8	89.5	46.8	27.5
1949	86.9	52.3	79.5	87.8	95.9	98.0	95.6	87.5	46.9	27.4
1950	86.8	52.0	79.0	89.1	96.2	97.6	95.8	86.9	45.8	28.7
1951	87.3	54.5	80.3	91.1	97.1	97.6	96.0	87.2	44.9	27.7
1952	87.2	53.1	79.1	92.1	97.7	97.9	96.2	87.5	42.6	25.9
1953	86.9	51.7	78.5	92.2	97.6	98.2	96.6	87.9	41.6	24.6
1954	86.4	48.3	76.5	91.5	97.5	98.1	96.5	88.7	40.5	24.7
1955	86.2	49.5	77.1	90.8	97.7	98.1	96.5	87.9	39.6	24.0
1956	86.3	52.6	77.9	90.8	97.4	98.0	96.6	88.5	40.0	26.6
1957	85.5	51.1	77.7	89.8	97.3	97.9	96.4	87.5	37.5	25.1
1958	85.0	47.9	75.7	89.5	97.3	98.0	96.3	87.8	35.6	23.8
1959	84.5	46.0	75.5	90.1	97.5	97.8	96.0	87.4	34.2	24.2
1960	84.0	46.8	73.6	90.2	97.7	97.7	95.8	86.8	33.1	22.3
1961	83.6	45.4	71.3	89.8	97.8	97.7	95.6	87.3	31.7	21.8
1962	82.8	43.5	71.9	89.1	97.4	97.7	95.6	86.2	30.3	21.6
1963	82.2	42.7	73.1	88.3	97.3	97.6	95.8	86.2	28.4	20.9
1964	81.9	43.6	72.0	88.2	97.5	97.4	95.8	85.6	28.0	20.8
1965	81.5	44.6	70.0	88.0	97.4	97.4	95.6	84.7	27.9	21.4
1966	81.4	47.0	69.0	87.9	97.5	97.3	95.3	84.5	27.0	21.6
1967	81.5	47.5	70.9	87.5	97.4	97.4	95.2	84.4	27.1	22.2
1968	81.2	46.8	70.2	86.5	97.1	97.2	94.9	84.3	27.3	22.1
1969	80.9	47.7	69.6	86.6	96.9	97.0	94.6	83.4	27.2	22.0

Footnote at end of table.

Table A–2. Total Labor Force (Including Armed Forces) and Labor Force Participation Rates [1] for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–69—Continued

Sex and year	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
	Labor force participation rate—Continued									
FEMALE										
1947	31.8	29.5	52.3	44.9	32.0	36.3	32.7	24.3	8.1	11.2
1948	32.7	31.4	52.1	45.3	33.2	36.9	35.0	24.3	9.1	12.2
1949	33.2	31.2	53.0	45.0	33.5	38.1	35.9	25.3	9.6	11.8
1950	33.9	30.1	51.3	46.1	34.0	39.1	38.0	27.0	9.7	12.7
1951	34.7	32.2	52.7	46.6	35.4	39.8	39.7	27.6	8.9	11.9
1952	34.8	33.4	51.4	44.8	35.5	40.5	40.1	28.7	9.1	11.1
1953	34.5	31.0	50.8	44.5	34.1	41.3	40.4	29.1	10.0	10.8
1954	34.6	28.7	50.5	45.3	34.5	41.3	41.2	30.1	9.3	11.3
1955	35.7	28.9	51.0	46.0	34.9	41.6	43.8	32.5	10.6	11.3
1956	36.9	32.8	52.1	46.4	35.4	43.1	45.5	34.9	10.9	12.9
1957	36.9	31.1	51.5	46.0	35.6	43.3	46.5	34.5	10.5	12.5
1958	37.1	28.1	51.0	46.4	35.6	43.4	47.9	35.2	10.3	12.1
1959	37.2	28.8	49.1	45.2	35.4	43.4	49.0	36.6	10.2	12.9
1960	37.8	29.1	51.1	46.2	36.0	43.5	49.8	37.2	10.8	12.6
1961	38.1	28.5	51.1	47.1	36.4	43.8	50.1	37.9	10.7	13.1
1962	38.0	27.1	50.9	47.4	36.4	44.1	50.0	38.7	9.9	13.2
1963	38.3	27.1	50.6	47.6	37.2	44.9	50.6	39.7	9.6	11.8
1964	38.7	27.4	49.3	49.5	37.3	45.0	51.4	40.2	10.1	12.0
1965	39.3	27.7	49.4	50.0	38.6	46.1	50.9	41.1	10.0	12.2
1966	40.3	30.7	52.1	51.5	39.9	46.9	51.7	41.8	9.6	13.5
1967	41.1	31.0	52.3	53.4	41.9	48.1	51.8	42.4	9.6	14.7
1968	41.6	31.7	52.5	54.6	42.6	48.9	52.3	42.4	9.6	14.8
1969	42.7	33.7	53.5	56.8	43.8	49.9	53.8	43.1	9.9	14.8

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[1] Percent of noninstitutional population in the labor force.

Table A–3. Civilian Labor Force for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–69 [1]

[Thousands]

Item	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
MALE										
1947	42,686	1,106	1,382	4,629	10,207	9,492	7,847	5,647	2,376	586
1948	43,286	1,109	1,491	4,674	10,327	9,596	7,942	5,764	2,384	572
1949	43,498	1,056	1,421	4,681	10,410	9,722	8,008	5,748	2,454	577
1950	43,819	1,047	1,457	4,632	10,527	9,793	8,117	5,794	2,454	623
1951	43,001	1,080	1,266	3,935	10,375	9,798	8,204	5,874	2,469	611
1952	42,869	1,101	1,210	3,338	10,585	9,945	8,326	5,950	2,415	585
1953	43,633	1,070	1,249	3,054	10,737	10,436	8,570	5,974	2,544	561
1954	43,965	1,024	1,273	3,052	10,772	10,513	8,703	6,105	2,525	572
1955	44,475	1,070	1,299	3,221	10,805	10,595	8,839	6,122	2,526	566
1956	45,091	1,142	1,292	3,485	10,685	10,663	9,002	6,220	2,603	665
1957	45,197	1,127	1,290	3,626	10,571	10,731	9,153	6,222	2,478	685
1958	45,521	1,133	1,295	3,771	10,475	10,843	9,320	6,304	2,379	676
1959	45,886	1,207	1,391	3,940	10,346	10,899	9,437	6,345	2,322	676
1960	46,388	1,290	1,496	4,123	10,252	10,967	9,574	6,400	2,287	637
1961	46,653	1,210	1,583	4,255	10,176	11,012	9,667	6,530	2,220	725
1962	46,600	1,177	1,592	4,279	9,921	11,115	9,715	6,560	2,241	780
1963	47,129	1,321	1,586	4,514	9,875	11,187	9,836	6,674	2,135	738
1964	47,679	1,498	1,576	4,754	9,875	11,155	9,956	6,740	2,123	731
1965	48,255	1,531	1,866	4,894	9,902	11,121	10,045	6,763	2,131	759
1966	48,471	1,610	2,074	4,820	9,948	10,983	10,100	6,847	2,089	790
1967	48,987	1,658	1,976	5,043	10,207	10,860	10,189	6,938	2,118	838
1968	49,533	1,687	1,994	5,070	10,610	10,725	10,267	7,025	2,154	857
1969	50,221	1,770	2,101	5,282	10,940	10,556	10,343	7,058	2,170	874
FEMALE										
1947	16,664	643	1,192	2,716	3,740	3,676	2,731	1,522	445	232
1948	17,335	671	1,164	2,719	3,932	3,800	2,972	1,565	514	248
1949	17,788	648	1,163	2,659	3,997	3,989	3,099	1,678	556	242
1950	18,389	611	1,101	2,675	4,092	4,161	3,327	1,839	584	268
1951	19,016	662	1,095	2,659	4,292	4,301	3,534	1,923	551	255
1952	19,269	706	1,046	2,502	4,320	4,438	3,636	2,032	590	244
1953	19,382	656	1,050	2,428	4,162	4,662	3,680	2,048	693	239
1954	19,678	620	1,062	2,424	4,212	4,709	3,822	2,164	666	253
1955	20,548	641	1,083	2,445	4,251	4,805	4,154	2,391	780	258
1956	21,461	736	1,127	2,455	4,276	5,031	4,405	2,610	821	313
1957	21,732	716	1,144	2,442	4,255	5,116	4,615	2,631	813	332
1958	22,118	685	1,147	2,500	4,193	5,185	4,859	2,727	822	333
1959	22,483	765	1,131	2,473	4,089	5,227	5,081	2,883	836	349
1960	23,240	805	1,250	2,580	4,131	5,303	5,278	2,986	907	347
1961	23,806	774	1,368	2,697	4,143	5,389	5,403	3,105	926	419
1962	24,014	742	1,405	2,802	4,103	5,474	5,381	3,198	911	460
1963	24,704	850	1,381	2,959	4,174	5,600	5,503	3,332	905	405
1964	25,412	950	1,364	3,210	4,180	5,614	5,680	3,447	966	411
1965	26,200	954	1,559	3,364	4,329	5,720	5,712	3,587	976	421
1966	27,299	1,054	1,819	3,589	4,508	5,756	5,883	3,727	963	481
1967	28,360	1,076	1,811	3,967	4,848	5,844	5,984	3,855	978	539
1968	29,204	1,130	1,808	4,235	5,098	5,865	6,131	3,938	999	559
1969	30,512	1,240	1,860	4,597	5,395	5,901	6,386	4,077	1,056	573

Footnote at end of table.

Table A–3. Civilian Labor Force for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–69 [1]—Continued

Item	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 and and over	14 and 15 years
WHITE										
Male										
1954	39,760	895	1,094	2,656	9,695	9,516	7,914	5,654	2,338	495
1955	40,196	934	1,121	2,802	9,720	9,598	8,027	5,653	2,342	487
1956	40,734	1,003	1,111	3,034	9,594	9,662	8,175	5,736	2,417	586
1957	40,821	992	1,115	3,153	9,483	9,719	8,317	5,735	2,308	607
1958	41,080	1,001	1,116	3,278	9,386	9,822	8,465	5,800	2,213	606
1959	41,397	1,077	1,202	3,408	9,261	9,876	8,581	5,833	2,158	596
1960	41,742	1,140	1,293	3,559	9,153	9,919	8,689	5,861	2,129	555
1961	41,986	1,067	1,372	3,681	9,072	9,961	8,776	5,988	2,068	649
1962	41,931	1,041	1,391	3,726	8,846	10,029	8,820	5,995	2,082	710
1963	42,404	1,183	1,380	3,955	8,805	10,079	8,944	6,090	1,967	661
1964	42,893	1,345	1,371	4,166	8,800	10,055	9,053	6,160	1,943	646
1965	43,400	1,359	1,639	4,279	8,823	10,023	9,129	6,188	1,958	669
1966	43,572	1,423	1,831	4,200	8,859	9,892	9,189	6,250	1,928	706
1967	44,042	1,464	1,727	4,416	9,101	9,784	9,260	6,349	1,943	738
1968	44,554	1,504	1,732	4,432	9,477	9,661	9,340	6,427	1,980	761
1969	45,185	1,583	1,830	4,615	9,773	9,509	9,413	6,467	1,995	788
Female										
1954	17,057	552	960	2,098	3,532	4,025	3,346	1,937	607	205
1955	17,886	576	966	2,137	3,546	4,131	3,654	2,156	720	224
1956	18,693	654	1,003	2,158	3,559	4,340	3,886	2,344	748	269
1957	18,920	645	1,022	2,131	3,561	4,397	4,065	2,357	743	292
1958	19,213	614	1,028	2,172	3,498	4,435	4,262	2,454	751	295
1959	19,556	698	1,023	2,135	3,409	4,479	4,467	2,577	767	307
1960	20,171	731	1,112	2,228	3,441	4,531	4,633	2,661	835	300
1961	20,668	700	1,222	2,345	3,431	4,596	4,741	2,785	849	376
1962	20,819	668	1,254	2,438	3,372	4,666	4,731	2,861	830	418
1963	21,426	767	1,228	2,582	3,424	4,780	4,845	2,977	823	365
1964	22,028	867	1,201	2,786	3,435	4,797	4,989	3,077	874	374
1965	22,736	862	1,405	2,910	3,568	4,876	5,032	3,203	879	382
1966	23,702	944	1,630	3,123	3,732	4,894	5,181	3,333	865	444
1967	24,657	967	1,591	3,470	4,021	4,980	5,285	3,468	877	485
1968	25,424	1,015	1,588	3,677	4,263	5,021	5,416	3,541	903	520
1969	26,594	1,115	1,640	3,999	4,516	5,055	5,645	3,665	958	534
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES										
Male										
1954	4,203	127	178	396	1,074	997	790	451	187	79
1955	4,279	135	178	419	1,085	998	813	468	183	79
1956	4,359	140	181	450	1,090	1,002	827	484	185	77
1957	4,376	135	175	473	1,088	1,012	836	487	170	78
1958	4,442	133	180	493	1,089	1,021	855	505	166	69
1959	4,490	130	188	532	1,085	1,023	849	512	163	79
1960	4,645	150	203	564	1,099	1,049	884	538	158	83
1961	4,666	142	210	575	1,103	1,050	891	542	151	77
1962	4,668	136	201	553	1,074	1,087	895	564	159	71
1963	4,725	138	206	558	1,070	1,109	891	584	168	77
1964	4,785	154	205	588	1,074	1,101	903	580	181	86
1965	4,855	172	226	614	1,079	1,098	916	575	173	90
1966	4,899	187	244	620	1,089	1,090	912	597	162	84
1967	4,945	194	249	628	1,106	1,076	929	590	175	91
1968	4,979	183	262	639	1,133	1,064	927	598	174	96
1969	5,036	187	271	667	1,167	1,048	931	592	175	86
Female										
1954	2,621	68	101	326	680	684	476	226	59	47
1955	2,663	65	117	307	706	673	499	235	60	34
1956	2,768	82	124	297	717	692	519	266	72	44
1957	2,812	71	122	311	694	719	550	274	70	40
1958	2,905	71	120	328	695	750	597	274	72	38
1959	2,928	66	107	338	680	748	614	304	69	42
1960	3,069	74	139	352	690	771	645	324	73	47
1961	3,136	74	146	353	712	793	662	320	77	44
1962	3,195	73	151	364	730	809	650	336	82	42
1963	3,279	82	153	377	749	821	656	354	84	39
1964	3,384	83	164	424	744	818	690	370	92	37
1965	3,464	92	154	454	761	844	680	363	96	39
1966	3,597	110	188	466	777	863	702	394	99	37
1967	3,704	110	219	497	827	864	699	387	102	48
1968	3,780	115	220	558	835	845	715	397	96	38
1969	3,918	125	219	598	878	846	741	412	99	39

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[1] Absolute numbers by color are not available prior to 1954 because population controls by color were not introduced into the Current Population Survey until that year.

Table A–4. Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates[1] for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Color, Sex, and Age: Annual Averages, 1948–69

Item	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
WHITE										
Male										
1948	86.5	51.2	76.2	84.4	96.0	98.0	95.9	89.6	45.6	26.1
1949	86.4	50.1	74.8	86.5	95.9	98.0	95.6	87.6	46.6	26.3
1950	86.4	50.5	75.6	87.5	96.4	97.7	95.9	87.3	45.8	27.6
1951	86.5	52.7	74.2	88.4	97.0	97.6	96.0	87.4	44.5	26.9
1952	86.2	51.9	72.7	87.6	97.6	97.9	96.3	87.7	42.5	25.3
1953	86.1	49.8	72.8	87.4	97.5	97.9	96.4	87.7	41.3	23.6
1954	85.6	47.1	70.4	86.4	97.5	98.2	96.8	89.2	40.4	24.5
1955	85.4	48.0	71.7	85.6	97.8	98.3	96.7	88.4	39.5	23.5
1956	85.6	51.3	71.9	87.6	97.4	98.1	96.8	88.9	40.0	26.7
1957	84.8	49.6	71.6	86.7	97.2	98.0	96.6	88.0	37.7	25.1
1958	84.3	46.8	69.4	86.7	97.2	98.0	96.6	88.2	35.7	24.1
1959	83.8	45.4	70.3	87.3	97.5	98.0	96.3	87.9	34.3	24.2
1960	83.4	46.0	69.0	87.8	97.7	97.9	96.1	87.2	33.3	22.2
1961	83.0	44.3	66.2	87.6	97.7	97.9	95.9	87.8	31.9	22.2
1962	82.1	42.9	66.4	86.5	97.4	97.9	96.0	86.7	30.6	22.3
1963	81.5	42.4	67.8	85.8	97.4	97.8	96.2	86.6	28.4	21.4
1964	81.1	43.5	66.6	85.7	97.5	97.6	96.1	86.1	27.9	21.2
1965	80.8	44.6	65.8	85.3	97.4	97.7	95.9	85.2	27.9	21.7
1966	80.6	47.1	65.4	84.4	97.5	97.6	95.8	84.9	27.2	22.3
1967	80.7	47.9	66.1	84.0	97.5	97.7	95.6	84.9	27.1	22.6
1968	80.4	47.7	65.7	82.4	97.2	97.6	95.4	84.7	27.3	22.7
1969	80.2	48.8	66.3	82.6	97.0	97.4	95.1	83.9	27.3	23.0
Female										
1948	31.3	31.7	53.5	45.1	31.3	35.1	33.3	23.3	8.6	11.1
1949	31.8	31.4	54.0	44.4	31.7	36.1	34.3	24.2	9.1	10.3
1950	32.6	30.1	52.6	45.9	32.1	37.2	36.3	26.0	9.2	11.5
1951	33.4	32.4	54.1	46.7	33.6	38.0	38.0	26.5	8.5	11.2
1952	33.6	34.1	52.0	44.8	33.8	38.9	38.8	27.6	8.7	10.2
1953	33.4	31.2	51.9	44.1	31.7	38.8	38.7	28.5	9.4	9.9
1954	33.3	29.3	52.1	44.4	32.5	39.4	39.8	29.1	9.1	10.5
1955	34.5	29.9	52.0	45.8	32.8	39.9	42.7	31.8	10.5	11.2
1956	35.7	33.5	53.0	46.5	33.2	41.5	44.4	34.0	10.6	12.7
1957	35.7	32.1	52.6	45.8	33.6	41.5	45.4	33.7	10.2	12.5
1958	35.8	28.8	52.3	46.1	33.6	41.4	46.5	34.5	10.1	12.2
1959	36.0	29.9	50.8	44.5	33.4	41.4	47.8	35.7	10.2	13.0
1960	36.5	30.0	51.9	45.7	34.1	41.5	48.6	36.2	10.6	12.5
1961	36.9	29.4	51.9	46.9	34.3	41.8	48.9	37.2	10.5	13.5
1962	36.7	27.9	51.6	47.1	34.1	42.2	48.9	38.0	9.8	13.7
1963	37.2	27.9	51.3	47.3	34.8	43.1	49.5	38.9	9.4	12.2
1964	37.5	28.5	49.6	48.8	35.0	43.3	50.2	39.4	9.9	12.7
1965	38.1	28.7	50.6	49.2	36.3	44.3	49.9	40.3	9.7	12.9
1966	39.2	31.8	53.1	51.0	37.7	45.0	50.6	41.1	9.4	14.5
1967	40.1	32.3	52.7	53.1	39.7	46.4	50.9	41.9	9.3	15.4
1968	40.7	33.0	53.3	54.0	40.6	47.5	51.5	42.0	9.4	16.0
1969	41.8	35.2	54.6	56.4	41.7	48.6	53.0	42.6	9.7	16.1
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES										
Male										
1948	87.3	59.8	77.8	85.6	95.3	97.2	94.7	88.6	50.3	39.3
1949	87.0	60.4	80.8	89.7	94.1	97.3	95.6	86.0	51.4	36.6
1950	85.9	57.4	78.2	91.4	92.6	96.2	95.1	81.9	45.5	37.7
1951	86.3	54.7	80.8	88.7	95.7	96.4	95.1	84.6	49.5	34.6
1952	86.8	52.3	79.1	92.8	96.2	97.2	95.0	85.7	43.3	30.5
1953	86.2	53.0	76.7	92.3	96.7	97.3	93.9	86.7	41.1	27.8
1954	85.2	46.7	78.4	91.1	96.2	96.6	93.2	83.0	41.2	27.2
1955	85.0	48.2	75.7	89.7	95.8	96.2	94.2	83.1	40.0	27.1
1956	85.1	49.6	76.4	88.9	96.2	96.2	94.4	83.9	39.8	25.5
1957	84.3	47.5	72.0	89.6	96.1	96.5	93.5	82.4	35.9	24.7
1958	84.0	45.1	71.7	88.7	96.3	96.4	93.9	83.3	34.5	21.3
1959	83.4	41.7	72.0	90.8	96.3	95.8	92.8	82.5	33.5	23.9
1960	83.0	45.6	71.2	90.4	96.2	95.5	92.3	82.5	31.2	23.3
1961	82.2	42.5	70.5	89.7	95.9	94.8	92.3	81.6	29.4	19.2
1962	80.8	40.2	68.8	89.3	95.3	94.5	92.2	81.5	27.2	16.5
1963	80.2	37.2	69.1	88.6	94.9	94.9	91.1	82.5	27.6	17.2
1964	80.0	37.3	67.2	89.4	95.9	94.4	91.6	80.6	29.6	18.7
1965	79.6	39.3	66.7	89.8	95.7	94.2	92.0	78.8	27.9	18.9
1966	79.0	41.1	63.7	89.9	95.5	91.1	90.7	81.1	25.6	17.3
1967	78.5	41.2	62.7	87.2	95.5	95.6	91.3	79.3	27.2	18.1
1968	77.6	37.9	63.3	85.0	95.0	93.4	90.1	79.6	26.6	18.3
1969	76.9	37.7	63.2	84.4	94.4	92.7	89.5	77.9	26.1	15.8
Female										
1948	45.6	29.1	41.2	47.1	50.6	53.3	51.1	37.6	17.5	21.0
1949	46.9	30.1	44.8	49.8	50.9	56.1	52.7	39.6	15.6	23.5
1950	46.9	30.2	40.6	46.9	51.6	55.7	54.3	40.9	16.5	22.0
1951	46.3	30.4	40.2	45.4	51.1	55.8	55.5	39.8	14.0	17.3
1952	45.5	27.4	44.7	43.9	50.1	54.0	52.7	42.3	14.3	18.5
1953	43.6	24.2	37.8	45.1	48.1	54.9	51.0	35.9	11.4	14.9
1954	46.1	24.5	37.7	49.6	49.7	57.5	53.4	41.2	12.2	16.2
1955	46.1	22.7	43.2	46.7	51.3	56.0	54.8	40.7	12.1	11.4
1956	47.3	28.3	44.6	44.9	52.1	57.0	55.3	44.5	14.5	14.4
1957	47.2	24.1	42.8	46.6	50.4	58.7	56.8	44.3	13.6	12.6
1958	48.0	23.2	41.2	48.3	50.8	60.8	59.8	42.8	13.3	11.6
1959	47.7	20.7	36.1	48.8	50.0	60.0	60.0	46.4	12.6	12.6
1960	48.2	22.1	44.3	48.8	49.7	59.8	60.5	47.3	12.8	13.2
1961	48.3	21.6	44.6	47.7	51.2	60.5	61.1	45.2	13.1	11.0
1962	48.0	21.0	45.5	48.6	52.0	59.7	60.5	46.1	12.2	9.7
1963	48.1	21.5	44.9	49.2	53.3	59.4	60.6	47.3	11.8	8.7
1964	48.5	19.5	46.5	53.6	52.8	58.4	62.3	48.4	12.7	8.0
1965	48.6	20.5	40.0	55.2	54.0	59.9	60.2	48.9	12.9	8.1
1966	49.3	23.6	44.0	54.5	54.9	60.9	61.0	49.1	13.0	7.5
1967	49.5	22.8	48.7	54.9	57.5	60.8	59.6	47.1	13.0	9.4
1968	49.3	23.3	46.9	58.4	56.6	59.3	59.8	47.0	11.9	7.2
1969	49.8	24.4	45.4	58.6	57.8	59.5	60.8	47.5	11.9	7.1

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[1] Percent of civilian noninstitutional population in the civilian labor force.

Table A–5. Employment Status of the Civilian Labor Force, by Color, for Teenagers 16 to 19 Years Old and for Adults: Annual Averages, 1954–69 [1]

Employment status and year	White				Negro and other races			
	Total, 16 years and over	16 to 19 years, both sexes	20 years and over		Total, 16 years and over	16 to 19 years, both sexes	20 years and over	
			Male	Female			Male	Female
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE (thousands)								
1954	56,817	3,501	37,770	15,543	6,824	474	3,898	2,453
1955	58,082	3,597	38,143	16,346	6,942	495	3,966	2,480
1956	59,427	3,771	38,620	17,035	7,127	527	4,038	2,563
1957	59,741	3,774	38,714	17,253	7,188	503	4,066	2,619
1958	60,293	3,759	38,964	17,572	7,347	504	4,130	2,713
1959	60,953	4,000	39,118	17,834	7,418	491	4,171	2,755
1960	61,913	4,276	39,310	18,330	7,714	566	4,293	2,855
1961	62,654	4,361	39,547	18,747	7,802	572	4,313	2,918
1962	62,750	4,354	39,499	18,897	7,863	561	4,332	2,970
1963	63,830	4,558	39,841	19,430	8,004	579	4,381	3,042
1964	64,921	4,784	40,177	19,960	8,169	606	4,427	3,138
1965	66,136	5,265	40,401	20,468	8,319	644	4,456	3,218
1966	67,274	5,828	40,318	21,128	8,496	729	4,468	3,299
1967	68,699	5,748	40,851	22,100	8,648	771	4,502	3,375
1968	69,977	5,839	41,318	22,821	8,760	779	4,535	3,446
1969	71,779	6,168	41,772	23,839	8,954	801	4,579	3,574
EMPLOYED (thousands)								
1954	53,957	3,079	36,123	14,755	6,150	396	3,511	2,244
1955	55,834	3,226	36,896	15,712	6,341	417	3,632	2,290
1956	57,265	3,387	37,474	16,404	6,535	431	3,742	2,362
1957	57,452	3,373	37,479	16,600	6,619	407	3,760	2,452
1958	56,614	3,217	36,808	16,589	6,422	366	3,604	2,454
1959	58,005	3,475	37,533	16,998	6,624	363	3,734	2,527
1960	58,850	3,701	37,663	17,487	6,927	428	3,880	2,618
1961	58,912	3,692	37,533	17,687	6,832	414	3,809	2,610
1962	59,698	3,774	37,918	18,006	7,004	420	3,897	2,686
1963	60,622	3,850	38,272	18,499	7,140	403	3,979	2,757
1964	61,922	4,076	38,798	19,048	7,383	441	4,088	2,855
1965	63,445	4,562	39,232	19,652	7,643	475	4,190	2,979
1966	65,019	5,176	39,417	20,426	7,875	544	4,249	3,082
1967	66,361	5,113	39,985	21,263	8,011	569	4,309	3,134
1968	67,751	5,195	40,503	22,052	8,169	585	4,356	3,229
1969	69,518	5,508	40,978	23,032	8,384	609	4,410	3,365
UNEMPLOYED (thousands)								
1954	2,860	422	1,647	788	674	78	387	209
1955	2,248	371	1,247	634	601	78	334	190
1956	2,162	384	1,146	631	592	96	296	201
1957	2,289	401	1,236	657	569	96	306	165
1958	3,679	542	2,156	983	925	138	526	259
1959	2,947	525	1,585	836	794	128	437	228
1960	3,063	575	1,647	843	787	138	413	237
1961	3,742	669	2,014	1,060	970	158	504	308
1962	3,052	580	1,581	891	859	141	435	284
1963	3,208	708	1,569	931	864	176	402	285
1964	2,999	708	1,379	912	786	165	339	283
1965	2,691	703	1,169	817	676	169	267	239
1966	2,253	651	901	703	621	185	219	217
1967	2,338	635	866	837	638	204	193	241
1968	2,226	644	814	768	590	195	179	217
1969	2,261	660	794	806	570	193	168	209
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE								
1954	5.0	12.1	4.4	5.1	9.9	16.5	9.9	8.5
1955	3.9	10.3	3.3	3.9	8.7	15.8	8.4	7.7
1956	3.6	10.2	3.0	3.7	8.3	18.2	7.3	7.8
1957	3.8	10.6	3.2	3.8	7.9	19.1	7.5	6.3
1958	6.1	14.4	5.5	5.6	12.6	27.4	12.7	9.5
1959	4.8	13.1	4.1	4.7	10.7	26.1	10.5	8.3
1960	4.9	13.4	4.2	4.6	10.2	24.4	9.6	8.3
1961	6.0	15.3	5.1	5.7	12.4	27.6	11.7	10.6
1962	4.9	13.3	4.0	4.1	10.9	25.1	10.0	9.6
1963	5.0	15.5	3.9	4.8	10.8	30.4	9.2	9.4
1964	4.6	14.8	3.4	4.6	9.6	27.2	7.7	9.0
1965	4.1	13.4	2.9	4.0	8.1	26.2	6.0	7.4
1966	3.3	11.2	2.2	3.3	7.3	25.4	4.9	6.6
1967	3.4	11.0	2.1	3.8	7.4	26.5	4.3	7.1
1968	3.2	11.0	2.0	3.4	6.7	25.0	3.9	6.3
1969	3.1	10.7	1.9	3.4	6.4	24.0	3.7	5.8

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[1] See footnote 1, table A-3.

Table A–6. Employment Status of Young Workers 16 to 24 Years Old: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Employment status and year	Total, 16 years and over	Total, 16 to 24 years	16 to 19 years			20 to 24 years
			Total	16 and 17	18 and 19	
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE (thousands)						
1947	59,350	11,668	4,323	1,750	2,573	7,345
1948	60,621	11,828	4,435	1,780	2,655	7,393
1949	61,286	11,629	4,289	1,704	2,585	7,340
1950	62,208	11,523	4,216	1,659	2,557	7,307
1951	62,017	10,699	4,105	1,743	2,362	6,594
1952	62,138	9,903	4,063	1,807	2,256	5,840
1953	63,015	9,509	4,026	1,726	2,300	5,483
1954	63,643	9,452	3,976	1,643	2,333	5,476
1955	65,023	9,759	4,093	1,711	2,382	5,666
1956	66,552	10,236	4,296	1,877	2,419	5,940
1957	66,929	10,344	4,276	1,843	2,433	6,068
1958	67,639	10,531	4,260	1,818	2,442	6,271
1959	68,369	10,905	4,492	1,971	2,521	6,413
1960	68,628	11,543	4,840	2,093	2,747	6,703
1961	70,459	11,888	4,935	1,984	2,951	6,953
1962	70,614	11,997	4,915	1,918	2,997	7,082
1963	71,833	12,611	5,138	2,171	2,967	7,473
1964	73,091	13,353	5,390	2,449	2,941	7,963
1965	74,455	14,168	5,910	2,485	3,425	8,258
1966	75,770	14,966	6,557	2,664	3,893	8,409
1967	77,347	15,529	6,519	2,734	3,786	9,010
1968	78,737	15,923	6,618	2,817	3,802	9,305
1969	80,733	16,849	6,970	3,009	3,960	9,879
EMPLOYED (thousands)						
1947	57,039	10,738	3,909	1,573	2,336	6,829
1948	58,344	10,965	4,028	1,602	2,426	6,937
1949	57,649	10,371	3,712	1,466	2,246	6,659
1950	58,920	10,449	3,703	1,433	2,270	6,746
1951	59,962	10,088	3,767	1,575	2,192	6,321
1952	60,254	9,289	3,718	1,626	2,092	5,571
1953	61,181	8,945	3,719	1,577	2,142	5,226
1954	60,110	8,446	3,475	1,422	2,053	4,971
1955	62,171	8,914	3,643	1,500	2,143	5,271
1956	63,802	9,364	3,818	1,647	2,171	5,546
1957	64,071	9,418	3,780	1,613	2,167	5,638
1958	63,036	9,152	3,582	1,519	2,063	5,570
1959	64,630	9,708	3,838	1,670	2,168	5,870
1960	65,778	10,249	4,129	1,769	2,360	6,120
1961	65,746	10,338	4,107	1,621	2,486	6,231
1962	66,702	10,641	4,195	1,607	2,588	6,446
1963	67,762	11,070	4,255	1,751	2,504	6,815
1964	69,305	11,820	4,516	2,013	2,503	7,304
1965	71,088	12,738	5,036	2,074	2,962	7,702
1966	72,895	13,684	5,721	2,269	3,452	7,963
1967	74,372	14,181	5,682	2,333	3,349	8,499
1968	75,920	14,542	5,780	2,403	3,377	8,762
1969	77,902	15,436	6,117	2,573	3,543	9,319
UNEMPLOYED (thousands)						
1947	2,311	930	414	177	237	516
1948	2,276	863	407	178	229	456
1949	3,637	1,255	575	238	337	680
1950	3,288	1,074	513	226	287	561
1951	2,055	609	336	168	168	273
1952	1,883	613	345	180	165	268
1953	1,834	563	307	150	157	256
1954	3,532	1,005	501	221	280	504
1955	2,852	846	450	211	239	396
1956	2,750	873	478	231	247	395
1957	2,859	925	496	230	266	429
1958	4,602	1,379	678	299	379	701
1959	3,740	1,197	654	301	353	543
1960	3,852	1,294	711	324	387	583
1961	4,714	1,550	828	363	465	722
1962	3,911	1,356	720	311	409	636
1963	4,070	1,541	883	420	463	658
1964	3,786	1,532	872	435	437	660
1965	3,366	1,431	874	411	463	557
1966	2,875	1,281	836	395	441	445
1967	2,975	1,350	838	401	438	512
1968	2,817	1,382	839	413	425	543
1969	2,831	1,413	853	436	417	560
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE						
1947	3.9	8.0	9.6	10.1	9.2	7.0
1948	3.8	7.3	9.2	10.0	8.6	6.2
1949	5.9	10.8	13.4	14.0	13.0	9.3
1950	5.3	9.3	12.2	13.6	11.2	7.7
1951	3.3	5.7	8.2	9.6	7.1	4.1
1952	3.0	6.2	8.5	10.0	7.3	4.6
1953	2.9	5.9	7.6	8.7	6.8	4.7
1954	5.5	10.6	12.6	13.5	12.0	9.2
1955	4.4	8.7	11.0	12.3	10.0	7.0
1956	4.1	8.5	11.1	12.3	10.2	6.6
1957	4.3	9.0	11.6	12.5	10.9	7.1
1958	6.8	13.1	15.9	16.4	15.5	11.2
1959	5.5	11.0	14.6	15.3	14.0	8.5
1960	5.5	11.2	14.7	15.5	14.1	8.7
1961	6.7	13.0	16.8	18.3	15.8	10.4
1962	5.5	11.3	14.6	16.2	13.6	9.0
1963	5.7	12.2	17.2	19.3	15.6	8.8
1964	5.2	11.5	16.2	17.8	14.9	8.3
1965	4.5	10.1	14.8	16.5	13.5	6.7
1966	3.8	8.6	12.7	14.8	11.3	5.3
1967	3.8	8.7	12.9	14.7	11.6	5.7
1968	3.6	8.7	12.7	14.7	11.2	5.8
1969	3.5	8.4	12.2	14.5	10.5	5.7

Table A–7. Persons 16 Years and Over Not in the Labor Force, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–69 [1]

[Thousands]

Item	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
MALE										
1947	6,710	1,069	458	907	468	191	369	658	2,590	1,532
1948	6,710	1,019	460	854	441	202	348	678	2,710	1,503
1949	6,825	1,006	463	725	462	205	372	821	2,773	1,529
1950	6,906	996	463	639	437	242	356	871	2,904	1,551
1951	6,725	958	421	517	334	251	347	864	3,034	1,597
1952	6,832	1,020	437	451	270	220	330	849	3,255	1,670
1953	7,117	1,052	452	428	282	196	308	823	3,576	1,723
1954	7,431	1,151	507	458	295	206	316	780	3,716	1,738
1955	7,634	1,155	499	488	263	209	326	840	3,856	1,796
1956	7,633	1,096	491	486	299	226	321	812	3,902	1,832
1957	8,118	1,157	510	540	318	235	347	887	4,125	2,046
1958	8,514	1,302	562	568	311	233	355	875	4,305	2,163
1959	8,907	1,475	581	548	280	251	394	915	4,463	2,112
1960	9,274	1,515	663	556	262	263	427	973	4,615	2,219
1961	9,633	1,531	788	589	265	274	445	953	4,786	2,596
1962	10,231	1,587	794	646	288	274	447	1,050	5,145	2,828
1963	10,792	1,842	748	727	290	289	439	1,066	5,391	2,798
1964	11,169	2,005	788	766	270	312	446	1,133	5,451	2,778
1965	11,527	1,956	965	807	280	306	467	1,227	5,518	2,795
1966	11,792	1,868	1,106	844	276	312	499	1,253	5,635	2,864
1967	11,919	1,871	1,034	934	290	303	517	1,281	5,692	2,941
1968	12,315	1,948	1,054	1,057	334	315	552	1,312	5,743	3,022
1969	12,677	1,972	1,087	1,097	369	334	592	1,406	5,821	3,098
FEMALE										
1947	35,767	1,541	1,090	3,342	7,970	6,454	5,621	4,733	5,016	1,841
1948	35,737	1,466	1,071	3,285	7,912	6,500	5,511	4,879	5,114	1,783
1949	35,883	1,426	1,032	3,249	7,955	6,486	5,524	4,957	5,253	1,814
1950	35,881	1,422	1,048	3,136	7,958	6,486	5,442	4,966	5,423	1,843
1951	35,879	1,395	989	3,058	7,842	6,513	5,379	5,033	5,671	1,891
1952	36,261	1,408	996	3,100	7,870	6,535	5,426	5,060	5,867	1,947
1953	36,924	1,462	1,022	3,050	8,084	6,627	5,434	4,982	6,262	1,969
1954	37,247	1,542	1,048	2,953	8,024	6,708	5,465	5,037	6,469	1,985
1955	37,026	1,474	1,044	2,884	7,930	6,740	5,326	4,959	6,569	2,036
1956	36,769	1,508	1,043	2,847	7,814	6,648	5,285	4,874	6,751	2,114
1957	37,218	1,587	1,083	2,879	7,705	6,705	5,311	4,987	6,961	2,317
1958	37,574	1,752	1,110	2,895	7,583	6,765	5,298	5,018	7,154	2,416
1959	38,053	1,891	1,180	3,014	7,488	6,831	5,291	4,993	7,365	2,348
1960	38,343	1,963	1,205	3,014	7,354	6,905	5,323	5,051	7,528	2,406
1961	38,679	1,946	1,314	3,042	7,247	6,911	5,379	5,087	7,753	2,769
1962	39,308	1,998	1,359	3,125	7,194	6,935	5,374	5,067	8,256	3,033
1963	39,791	2,289	1,355	3,265	7,062	6,872	5,368	5,067	8,514	3,031
1964	40,225	2,522	1,410	3,287	7,044	6,859	5,370	5,122	8,610	3,000
1965	40,531	2,494	1,605	3,376	6,906	6,685	5,505	5,151	8,808	3,031
1966	40,496	2,382	1,680	3,387	6,811	6,530	5,496	5,181	9,029	3,069
1967	40,608	2,399	1,659	3,478	6,716	6,309	5,568	5,238	9,243	3,133
1968	40,976	2,436	1,642	3,529	6,871	6,131	5,585	5,340	9,442	3,222
1969	40,924	2,442	1,626	3,512	6,942	5,918	5,485	5,389	9,611	3,296
WHITE										
Male										
1954	6,702	1,007	459	418	253	172	258	687	3,449	1,527
1955	6,881	1,011	442	439	216	170	276	745	3,581	1,582
1956	6,870	952	435	430	257	186	271	719	3,621	1,609
1957	7,301	1,008	442	485	274	198	289	783	3,822	1,808
1958	7,667	1,139	491	505	270	196	300	774	3,990	1,909
1959	8,013	1,293	508	495	238	205	328	806	4,140	1,862
1960	8,325	1,336	580	495	220	212	353	860	4,266	1,945
1961	8,624	1,340	701	523	218	217	372	831	4,422	2,269
1962	9,124	1,385	703	580	234	210	371	922	4,719	2,468
1963	9,629	1,609	656	655	234	230	353	941	4,952	2,428
1964	9,976	1,746	688	696	223	246	363	992	5,021	2,403
1965	10,283	1,691	852	738	234	240	387	1,073	5,070	2,409
1966	10,491	1,600	967	774	225	243	404	1,112	5,164	2,462
1967	10,566	1,594	886	842	238	229	429	1,126	5,224	2,530
1968	10,881	1,649	903	944	275	240	450	1,158	5,262	2,594
1969	11,164	1,663	929	974	300	251	483	1,238	5,325	2,641
Female										
1954	34,186	1,332	881	2,622	7,338	6,202	5,051	4,715	6,044	1,741
1955	33,917	1,353	890	2,534	7,260	6,211	4,912	4,615	6,142	1,773
1956	33,679	1,299	889	2,484	7,154	6,126	4,866	4,542	6,319	1,852
1957	34,077	1,363	920	2,523	7,023	6,199	4,893	4,642	6,515	2,039
1958	34,432	1,517	938	2,543	6,909	6,281	4,897	4,653	6,691	2,127
1959	34,837	1,639	992	2,659	6,807	6,333	4,881	4,642	6,886	2,056
1960	35,044	1,702	1,030	2,645	6,656	6,387	4,903	4,688	7,030	2,095
1961	35,326	1,678	1,132	2,654	6,568	6,395	4,956	4,700	7,242	2,411
1962	35,841	1,724	1,178	2,740	6,522	6,388	4,950	4,672	7,666	2,643
1963	36,246	1,990	1,166	2,877	6,404	6,309	4,940	4,673	7,887	2,622
1964	36,637	2,180	1,221	2,921	6,379	6,277	4,953	4,727	7,979	2,572
1965	36,865	2,137	1,374	3,008	6,258	6,119	5,056	4,751	8,163	2,591
1966	36,801	2,026	1,442	2,997	6,172	5,976	5,049	4,774	8,365	2,614
1967	36,835	2,026	1,428	3,070	6,104	5,752	5,094	4,803	8,558	2,674
1968	37,089	2,057	1,393	3,132	6,230	5,551	5,104	4,892	8,730	2,729
1969	36,970	2,057	1,362	3,089	6,301	5,341	5,006	4,935	8,878	2,783

Footnote at end of table.

Table A–7. Persons 16 Years and Over Not in the Labor Force, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–69 [1]—Continued

Item	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES										
Male										
1954	729	145	49	40	45	34	57	94	268	211
1955	755	145	57	48	47	38	48	95	274	213
1956	761	142	56	57	43	39	49	93	281	225
1957	818	149	68	55	44	37	58	104	303	238
1958	845	162	71	63	42	37	55	101	314	255
1959	894	182	73	54	41	45	66	109	324	251
1960	950	179	82	61	42	50	75	114	348	273
1961	1, 011	192	88	65	47	58	74	122	365	325
1962	1, 109	202	91	66	54	63	76	129	425	359
1963	1, 163	233	92	72	57	59	87	126	439	370
1964	1, 193	259	100	70	46	65	84	140	430	375
1965	1, 246	265	113	70	47	68	80	155	448	385
1966	1, 301	268	139	70	51	68	95	141	471	420
1967	1, 353	276	148	92	52	74	88	155	469	410
1968	1, 434	299	152	113	60	75	102	154	481	428
1969	1, 513	308	158	123	69	82	110	168	495	458
Female										
1954	3, 062	210	167	330	687	507	415	322	425	244
1955	3, 109	221	154	350	670	530	414	343	427	263
1956	3, 089	208	154	363	659	520	419	332	431	262
1957	3, 140	224	163	356	682	506	418	345	446	278
1958	3, 142	235	171	351	674	484	401	364	461	289
1959	3, 216	253	189	355	681	499	410	353	479	292
1960	3, 300	261	175	370	697	519	419	363	497	310
1961	3, 353	268	181	386	679	517	422	388	512	357
1962	3, 468	274	181	385	673	546	424	395	590	389
1963	3, 544	300	188	389	658	562	429	397	625	410
1964	3, 588	342	189	367	664	582	417	395	631	428
1965	3, 666	356	231	369	648	567	449	400	645	440
1966	3, 695	356	238	389	639	554	447	408	664	455
1967	3, 773	373	232	408	613	557	474	435	685	460
1968	3, 886	379	249	398	641	579	481	448	712	493
1969	3, 955	385	264	423	640	577	478	455	733	513

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[1] See footnote 1, table A–3.

Table A-8. Employed Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–69 [1]

[Thousands]

Item	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
MALE										
1947	40,994	992	1,226	4,238	9,858	9,242	7,644	5,485	2,309	558
1948	41,726	997	1,348	4,350	10,039	9,363	7,742	5,586	2,303	542
1949	40,926	911	1,213	4,196	9,870	9,308	7,661	5,438	2,329	547
1950	41,580	909	1,277	4,255	10,060	9,445	7,790	5,508	2,336	582
1951	41,780	979	1,177	3,780	10,134	9,607	8,012	5,711	2,382	582
1952	41,684	985	1,121	3,182	10,352	9,753	8,144	5,804	2,343	553
1953	42,431	976	1,159	2,902	10,500	10,229	8,374	5,808	2,483	535
1954	41,620	881	1,104	2,724	10,254	10,082	8,330	5,830	2,414	545
1955	42,621	936	1,159	2,974	10,453	10,267	8,553	5,857	2,424	531
1956	43,380	1,008	1,156	3,246	10,337	10,385	8,732	6,004	2,512	619
1957	43,357	987	1,130	3,343	10,222	10,427	8,851	6,002	2,394	633
1958	42,423	948	1,064	3,293	9,790	10,291	8,828	5,954	2,254	619
1959	43,466	1,015	1,183	3,597	9,863	10,492	9,048	6,058	2,210	623
1960	43,904	1,089	1,271	3,754	9,759	10,551	9,182	6,106	2,191	581
1961	43,656	989	1,325	3,798	9,591	10,505	9,194	6,156	2,098	662
1962	44,177	990	1,372	3,898	9,475	10,711	9,333	6,260	2,137	715
1963	44,657	1,073	1,333	4,118	9,431	10,801	9,479	6,385	2,039	673
1964	45,474	1,242	1,345	4,370	9,531	10,832	9,637	6,477	2,039	665
1965	46,340	1,284	1,634	4,583	9,611	10,837	9,792	6,542	2,057	694
1966	46,919	1,390	1,862	4,599	9,709	10,765	9,904	6,667	2,024	720
1967	47,479	1,417	1,769	4,809	9,989	10,676	9,990	6,775	2,058	741
1968	48,114	1,453	1,802	4,812	10,405	10,554	10,102	6,893	2,093	769
1969	48,818	1,526	1,904	5,012	10,736	10,401	10,186	6,931	2,122	576
FEMALE										
1947	16,045	581	1,110	2,591	3,606	3,577	2,659	1,484	436	214
1948	16,618	605	1,078	2,587	3,762	3,687	2,882	1,516	501	230
1949	16,723	555	1,033	2,463	3,769	3,800	2,975	1,604	535	224
1950	17,340	524	993	2,491	3,857	3,979	3,176	1,757	563	244
1951	18,182	596	1,015	2,541	4,099	4,139	3,409	1,847	535	239
1952	18,570	641	971	2,389	4,163	4,305	3,543	1,981	576	228
1953	18,750	601	983	2,324	4,019	4,545	3,595	1,998	683	229
1954	18,490	541	949	2,247	3,936	4,459	3,646	2,065	646	234
1955	19,550	564	984	2,297	4,028	4,612	4,003	2,301	761	240
1956	20,422	639	1,015	2,300	4,070	4,833	4,246	2,515	802	285
1957	20,714	626	1,037	2,295	4,031	4,921	4,469	2,550	784	307
1958	20,613	571	999	2,277	3,885	4,866	4,620	2,604	791	311
1959	21,164	655	985	2,273	4,846	4,961	4,867	2,764	812	328
1960	21,874	680	1,089	2,366	3,871	5,046	5,055	2,884	882	322
1961	22,090	632	1,161	2,433	3,838	5,047	5,124	2,964	889	388
1962	22,525	617	1,216	2,548	3,836	5,190	5,158	3,086	875	429
1963	23,105	678	1,171	2,697	3,888	5,313	5,272	3,211	877	374
1964	23,831	771	1,158	2,934	3,918	5,335	5,457	3,326	934	387
1965	24,748	790	1,328	3,119	4,093	5,457	5,528	3,486	948	397
1966	25,976	879	1,590	3,364	4,307	5,549	5,710	3,641	936	450
1967	26,893	917	1,580	3,690	4,587	5,608	5,799	3,762	953	495
1968	27,807	950	1,575	3,950	4,860	5,666	5,981	3,852	972	520
1969	29,084	1,047	1,639	4,307	5,147	5,699	6,223	3,988	1,033	554
WHITE										
Male										
1954	37,847	771	953	2,394	9,287	9,175	7,614	5,412	2,241	470
1955	38,721	821	1,004	2,607	9,461	9,351	7,792	5,431	2,254	462
1956	39,366	890	1,002	2,850	9,330	9,449	7,950	5,559	2,336	552
1957	39,343	874	990	2,930	9,226	9,480	8,067	5,542	2,234	566
1958	38,592	852	932	2,896	8,861	9,386	8,061	5,501	2,103	558
1959	39,493	915	1,046	3,153	8,911	9,560	8,261	5,588	2,060	554
1960	39,755	973	1,119	3,264	8,777	9,589	8,372	5,618	2,043	510
1961	39,588	891	1,164	3,311	8,630	9,566	8,394	5,670	1,961	597
1962	40,016	883	1,215	3,426	8,514	9,718	8,512	5,749	1,998	656
1963	40,428	972	1,184	3,646	8,463	9,782	8,650	5,844	1,887	609
1964	41,114	1,128	1,188	3,856	8,538	9,800	8,787	5,945	1,872	596
1965	41,844	1,159	1,453	4,025	8,598	9,795	8,924	5,998	1,892	622
1966	42,330	1,245	1,668	4,028	8,674	9,719	9,029	6,096	1,871	653
1967	42,834	1,278	1,571	4,231	8,931	9,632	9,093	6,208	1,892	672
1968	43,411	1,319	1,589	4,226	9,315	9,522	9,198	6,316	1,926	698
1969	44,048	1,385	1.685	4,401	9,608	9,379	9,279	6,359	1,953	722
Female										
1954	16,110	486	869	1,964	3,329	3,825	3,197	1,850	590	192
1955	17,113	509	892	2,030	3,394	3,976	3,530	2,079	703	208
1956	17,899	575	920	2,047	3,418	4,188	3,756	2,263	732	248
1957	18,109	568	941	2,022	3,393	4,236	3,942	2,287	717	272
1958	18,022	518	915	2,012	3,267	4,185	4,052	2,348	725	278
1959	18,512	605	909	1,985	3,233	4,270	4,291	2,475	745	292
1960	19,095	625	984	2,067	3,244	4,341	4,448	2,574	812	281
1961	19,324	581	1,056	2,149	3,205	4,339	4,512	2,665	817	351
1962	19,682	564	1,112	2,250	3,189	4,455	4,554	2,762	797	395
1963	20,194	628	1,066	2,390	3,226	4,559	4,654	2,874	796	344
1964	20,808	718	1,042	2,588	3,256	4,580	4,809	2,971	845	359
1965	21,601	733	1,217	2,727	3,394	4,678	4,880	3,118	856	365
1966	22,689	807	1,456	2,958	3,594	4,730	5,043	3,260	842	424
1967	23,528	843	1,422	3,262	3,832	4,797	5,131	3,388	854	460
1968	24,340	874	1,413	3,461	4,095	4,864	5,289	3,465	878	492
1969	25,470	962	1,476	3,781	4,327	4,891	5,509	3,588	935	500

Footnote at end of table.

Table A–8. Employed Persons 16 Years and Over, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–69[1]—Continued

Item	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
Negro and Other Races										
Male										
1954	3,772	110	151	330	967	907	716	418	173	75
1955	3,903	115	155	367	992	916	761	426	170	69
1956	4,013	118	154	396	1,007	936	782	445	176	67
1957	4,013	113	140	413	996	947	784	460	160	67
1958	3,831	97	132	397	929	905	767	454	151	60
1959	3,972	101	137	445	951	932	787	470	150	69
1960	4,148	116	152	490	982	963	809	487	148	72
1961	4,067	98	160	487	961	938	800	485	137	66
1962	4,160	106	157	472	961	993	821	510	140	60
1963	4,229	101	149	471	968	1,019	828	541	151	64
1964	4,359	114	158	514	993	1,032	850	533	167	70
1965	4,496	126	181	558	1,013	1,043	869	543	165	72
1966	4,588	145	194	571	1,035	1,044	875	571	153	67
1967	4,646	139	199	578	1,057	1,043	898	566	166	69
1968	4,702	134	212	586	1,090	1,032	904	576	167	71
1969	4,770	141	219	611	1,127	1,022	908	572	169	66
Female										
1954	2,378	55	80	283	607	634	449	215	56	42
1955	2,438	55	92	287	634	636	473	222	58	32
1956	2,521	64	95	253	652	645	490	252	70	37
1957	2,606	58	96	273	638	685	527	263	67	35
1958	2,591	53	84	265	618	681	568	257	67	33
1059	2,652	50	75	288	614	691	577	289	67	37
1960	2,779	55	105	298	627	705	608	310	70	42
1961	2,765	51	105	284	633	708	613	300	72	38
1962	2,844	53	104	298	647	736	604	324	78	34
1963	2,911	49	104	307	661	754	617	337	81	30
1964	3,024	53	116	346	662	754	649	355	90	28
1965	3,147	57	111	392	698	779	649	369	93	32
1966	3,287	72	133	407	714	818	668	381	94	26
1967	3,366	74	157	429	755	811	668	374	99	35
1968	3,467	76	162	489	765	802	692	386	94	27
1969	3,614	86	163	526	820	808	714	400	98	30

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[1] Absolute numbers by color are not available prior to 1954 because population controls by color were not introduced into the Current Population Survey until that year.

Table A–9. Employed Persons 16 Years and Over, by Occupation Group and Sex: Annual Averages, 1958–69 [1]

Sex and year	Total employed	White-collar workers					Blue-collar workers				Service workers			Farmworkers		
		Total	Professional and technical	Managers, officials, and proprietors	Clerical workers	Sales workers	Total	Craftsmen and foremen	Operatives	Nonfarm laborers	Total	Private household workers	Other service workers	Total	Farmers and farm managers	Farm laborers and foremen
	Number employed (thousands)															
Both Sexes																
1958	63,036	26,837	6,952	6,785	9,115	3,985	23,348	8,463	11,402	3,483	7,487	1,969	5,518	5,361	3,079	2,282
1959	64,630	27,593	7,140	6,936	9,307	4,210	23,993	8,554	11,816	3,623	7,697	1,948	5,749	5,344	3,013	2,331
1960	65,778	28,522	7,469	7,067	9,762	4,224	24,057	8,554	11,950	3,553	8,023	1,973	6,050	5,176	2,776	2,400
1961	65,746	28,888	7,698	7,120	9,838	4,232	23,683	8,617	11,719	3,347	8,261	2,035	6,226	4,913	2,706	2,207
1962	66,702	29,634	8,030	7,408	10,079	4,117	24,052	8,668	11,994	3,390	8,383	2,023	6,360	4,632	2,587	2,045
1963	67,762	29,949	8,255	7,293	10,250	4,151	24,775	8,915	12,464	3,396	8,671	2,029	6,642	4,364	2,388	1,976
1964	69,305	30,861	8,542	7,449	10,634	4,236	25,339	8,979	12,890	3,480	8,893	2,041	6,852	4,212	2,313	1,899
1965	71,088	31,852	8,872	7,340	11,141	4,499	26,247	9,216	13,345	3,686	8,936	1,956	6,980	4,053	2,238	1,815
1966	72,895	33,068	9,310	7,405	11,812	4,541	26,950	9,589	13,829	3,532	9,212	1,904	7,308	3,666	2,091	1,575
1967	74,372	34,232	9,879	7,495	12,333	4,525	27,261	9,845	13,884	3,533	9,325	1,769	7,556	3,554	1,970	1,584
1968	75,920	35,551	10,325	7,776	12,803	4,647	27,525	10,015	13,955	3,555	9,381	1,725	7,656	3,464	1,926	1,538
1969	77,902	36,844	10,769	7,987	13,397	4,692	28,237	10,193	14,372	3,672	9,528	1,631	7,897	3,292	1,844	1,448
Male																
1958	42,423	15,485	4,416	5,751	2,909	2,409	19,833	8,237	8,215	3,381	2,711	37	2,674	4,392	2,957	1,435
1959	43,466	15,974	4,582	5,858	2,985	2,549	20,422	8,341	8,558	3,523	2,732	33	2,699	4,335	2,894	1,441
1960	43,904	16,423	4,766	5,968	3,145	2,544	20,420	8,332	8,617	3,471	2,844	30	2,814	4,219	2,667	1,552
1961	43,656	16,617	4,952	6,002	3,110	2,553	20,072	8,401	8,401	3,270	2,906	44	2,862	4,061	2,578	1,483
1962	44,177	17,008	5,170	6,275	3,128	2,435	20,372	8,445	8,623	3,304	2,980	46	2,934	3,817	2,456	1,361
1963	44,657	17,059	5,309	6,180	3,117	2,453	20,956	8,675	8,974	3,307	3,095	44	3,051	3,547	2,257	1,290
1964	45,474	17,480	5,435	6,341	3,198	2,506	21,360	8,731	9,237	3,392	3,199	46	3,153	3,434	2,181	1,253
1965	46,340	17,746	5,596	6,230	3,279	2,641	22,107	8,947	9,581	3,579	3,194	40	3,154	3,295	2,107	1,188
1966	46,919	18,094	5,836	6,238	3,348	2,672	22,514	9,334	9,756	3,424	3,319	43	3,276	2,990	1,968	1,022
1967	47,479	18,527	6,183	6,318	3,406	2,622	22,683	9,560	9,706	3,417	3,334	33	3,301	2,936	1,872	1,066
1968	48,114	19,117	6,449	6,535	3,409	2,724	22,812	9,696	9,687	3,429	3,308	35	3,273	2,878	1,844	1,034
1969	48,818	19,574	6,751	6,726	3,422	2,675	23,263	9,854	9,883	3,526	3,257	39	3,218	2,723	1,764	959

Footnote at end of table.

Table A–9. Employed Persons 16 Years and Over, by Occupation Group and Sex: Annual Averages, 1958–69 [1]—Continued

Sex and year	Total employed	White-collar workers					Blue-collar workers				Service workers			Farmworkers		
		Total	Professional and technical	Managers, officials, and proprietors	Clerical workers	Sales workers	Total	Craftsmen and foremen	Operatives	Nonfarm laborers	Total	Private household workers	Other service workers	Total	Farmers and farm managers	Farm laborers and foremen
	Number employed (thousands)—Continued															
Female																
1958	20,613	11,352	2,536	1,034	6,206	1,576	3,515	226	3,187	102	4,776	1,932	2,844	969	122	847
1959	21,164	11,619	2,558	1,078	6,322	1,661	3,571	213	3,258	100	4,965	1,915	3,050	1,009	119	890
1960	21,874	12,099	2,703	1,099	6,617	1,680	3,637	222	3,333	82	5,179	1,943	3,236	957	109	848
1961	22,090	12,272	2,746	1,118	6,728	1,680	3,612	216	3,318	77	5,355	1,991	3,364	852	128	724
1962	22,525	12,626	2,860	1,133	6,951	1,682	3,680	223	3,371	86	5,403	1,977	3,426	815	131	684
1963	23,105	12,890	2,946	1,113	7,133	1,698	3,819	240	3,490	89	5,576	1,985	3,591	817	131	686
1964	23,831	13,381	3,107	1,108	7,436	1,730	3,982	250	3,643	88	5,694	1,995	3,699	778	132	646
1965	24,748	14,106	3,276	1,110	7,862	1,858	4,140	269	3,764	107	5,742	1,916	3,826	758	131	627
1966	25,976	14,974	3,474	1,167	8,464	1,869	4,436	255	4,073	108	5,893	1,861	4,032	676	123	553
1967	26,893	15,705	3,697	1,177	8,928	1,904	4,580	286	4,177	117	5,992	1,737	4,255	618	98	520
1968	27,807	16,435	3,877	1,241	9,394	1,923	4,712	319	4,267	126	6,072	1,689	4,383	587	82	505
1969	29,084	17,271	4,018	1,261	9,975	2,017	4,974	339	4,489	146	6,271	1,592	4,679	569	79	489
	Percent distribution															
Both Sexes																
1958	100.0	42.6	11.0	10.8	14.5	6.3	37.0	13.4	18.1	5.5	11.9	3.1	8.8	8.5	4.9	3.6
1959	100.0	42.7	11.0	10.7	14.4	6.5	37.1	13.2	18.3	5.6	11.9	3.0	8.9	8.3	4.7	3.6
1960	100.0	43.4	11.4	10.7	14.8	6.4	36.6	13.0	18.2	5.4	12.2	3.0	9.2	7.9	4.2	3.6
1961	100.0	43.9	11.7	10.8	15.0	6.4	36.0	13.1	17.8	5.1	12.6	3.1	9.5	7.5	4.1	3.4
1962	100.0	44.4	12.0	11.1	15.1	6.2	36.1	13.0	18.0	5.1	12.6	3.0	9.5	6.9	3.9	3.1
1963	100.0	44.2	12.2	10.8	15.1	6.1	36.6	13.2	18.4	5.0	12.8	3.0	9.8	6.4	3.5	2.9
1964	100.0	44.5	12.3	10.7	15.3	6.1	36.6	13.0	18.6	5.0	12.8	2.9	9.9	6.1	3.3	2.7
1965	100.0	44.8	12.5	10.3	15.7	6.3	36.9	13.0	18.8	5.2	12.6	2.8	9.8	5.7	3.1	2.6
1966	100.0	45.4	12.8	10.2	16.2	6.2	37.0	13.2	19.0	4.8	12.6	2.6	10.0	5.0	2.9	2.2
1967	100.0	46.0	13.3	10.1	16.6	6.1	36.7	13.2	18.7	4.8	12.5	2.4	10.2	4.8	2.6	2.1
1968	100.0	46.8	13.6	10.2	16.9	6.1	36.3	13.2	18.4	4.7	12.4	2.3	10.1	4.6	2.5	2.0
1969	100.0	47.3	13.8	10.2	17.2	6.0	36.2	13.1	18.4	4.7	12.2	2.1	10.1	4.2	2.4	1.9
Male																
1958	100.0	36.5	10.4	13.6	6.9	5.7	46.8	19.4	19.4	8.0	6.4	.1	6.3	10.4	7.0	3.4
1959	100.0	36.8	10.5	13.5	6.9	5.9	47.0	19.2	19.7	8.1	6.3	.1	6.2	10.0	6.7	3.3
1960	100.0	37.4	10.9	13.6	7.2	5.8	46.5	19.0	19.6	7.9	6.5	.1	6.4	9.6	6.1	3.5
1961	100.0	38.1	11.3	13.7	7.1	5.8	46.0	19.2	19.2	7.5	6.7	.1	6.6	9.3	5.9	3.4
1962	100.0	38.5	11.7	14.2	7.1	5.5	46.1	19.1	19.5	7.5	6.7	.1	6.6	8.6	5.6	3.1
1963	100.0	38.2	11.9	13.8	7.0	5.5	46.9	19.4	20.1	7.4	6.9	.1	6.8	7.9	5.1	2.9
1964	100.0	38.4	12.0	13.9	7.0	5.5	47.0	19.2	20.3	7.5	7.0	.1	6.9	7.6	4.8	2.8
1965	100.0	38.3	12.1	13.4	7.1	5.7	47.7	19.3	20.7	7.7	6.9	.1	6.8	7.1	4.5	2.6
1966	100.0	38.6	12.4	13.3	7.1	5.7	48.0	19.9	20.8	7.3	7.1	.1	7.0	6.4	4.2	2.2
1967	100.0	39.0	13.0	13.3	7.2	5.5	47.8	20.1	20.4	7.2	7.0	.1	7.0	6.2	3.9	2.2
1968	100.0	39.7	13.4	13.6	7.1	5.7	47.4	20.2	20.1	7.1	6.9	.1	6.8	6.0	3.8	2.1
1969	100.0	40.1	13.8	13.8	7.0	5.5	47.7	20.2	20.2	7.2	6.7	.1	6.6	5.6	3.6	2.0
Female																
1958	100.0	55.1	12.3	5.0	30.1	7.6	17.1	1.1	15.5	.5	23.2	9.4	13.8	4.7	.6	4.1
1959	100.0	54.9	12.1	5.1	29.9	7.8	16.9	1.0	15.4	.5	23.5	9.0	14.4	4.8	.6	4.2
1960	100.0	55.3	12.4	5.0	30.3	7.7	16.6	1.0	15.2	.4	23.7	8.9	14.8	4.4	.5	3.9
1961	100.0	55.6	12.4	5.1	30.5	7.6	16.4	1.0	15.0	.3	24.2	9.0	15.2	3.9	.6	3.3
1962	100.0	56.1	12.7	5.0	30.9	7.5	16.3	1.0	15.0	.4	24.0	8.8	15.2	3.6	.6	3.0
1963	100.0	55.8	12.8	4.8	30.9	7.3	16.5	1.0	15.1	.4	24.1	8.6	15.5	3.5	.6	3.0
1964	100.0	56.1	13.0	4.6	31.2	7.3	16.7	1.0	15.3	.4	23.9	8.4	15.5	3.3	.6	2.7
1965	100.0	57.0	13.2	4.5	31.8	7.5	16.7	1.1	15.2	.4	23.2	7.7	15.5	3.1	.5	2.5
1966	100.0	57.6	13.4	4.5	32.6	7.2	17.1	1.0	15.7	.4	22.7	7.2	15.5	2.6	.5	2.1
1967	100.0	58.4	13.7	4.4	33.2	7.1	17.0	1.1	15.5	.4	22.3	6.5	15.8	2.3	.4	1.9
1968	100.0	59.1	13.9	4.5	33.8	6.9	16.9	1.1	15.3	.5	21.8	6.1	15.8	2.1	.3	1.8
1969	100.0	59.4	13.8	4.3	34.3	6.9	17.1	1.2	15.4	.5	21.6	5.5	16.1	2.0	.3	1.7

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[1] Data for persons 16 years and over are not available prior to 1958. The lower age limit for the inclusion of [illegible]ons in labor force statistics was raised from 14 to 16 years of age beginning with the publication of data for 1967, and revisions of occupational data were not possible back to 1947.

These data from 1958 forward are revised from those first published after the age minimum was raised. More exact adjustments for 14- and 15-year-olds were developed in 1969 than were available earlier (see the December 1969 issue of *Employment and Earnings* for a more detailed explanation). The occupational data by color shown in table A–10 are consistent with these revised data.

Table A–10. Employed Persons 16 Years and Over, by Occupation Group and Color: Annual Averages, 1958–69 [1]

Color and year	Total employed	White-collar workers					Blue-collar workers				Service workers			Farmworkers		
		Total	Professional and technical	Managers, officials, and proprietors	Clerical workers	Sales workers	Total	Craftsmen and foremen	Operatives	Nonfarm laborers	Total	Private household workers	Other service workers	Total	Farmers and farm managers	Farm laborers and foremen
	Number employed (thousands)															
WHITE																
1958	56,614	25,953	6,690	6,631	8,725	3,907	20,734	8,085	10,109	2,540	5,365	983	4,382	4,557	2,839	1,718
1959	58,005	26,639	6,836	6,773	8,903	4,127	21,265	8,165	10,495	2,605	5,585	975	4,613	4,514	2,781	1,733
1960	58,850	27,409	7,138	6,889	9,259	4,123	21,277	8,139	10,536	2,602	5,827	991	4,836	4,335	2,557	1,778
1961	58,912	27,771	7,380	6,946	9,310	4,135	20,989	8,191	10,326	2,472	6,020	1,046	4,974	4,133	2,504	1,629
1962	59,698	28,459	7,658	7,219	9,570	4,012	21,269	8,240	10,586	2,443	6,088	1,001	5,087	3,879	2,392	1,487
1963	60,622	28,681	7,821	7,101	9,730	4,029	21,922	8,446	10,996	2,480	6,327	1,011	5,316	3,689	2,221	1,468
1964	61,922	29,477	8,043	7,257	10,066	4,111	22,344	8,456	11,365	2,523	6,512	1,043	5,469	3,591	2,168	1,423
1965	63,445	30,359	8,348	7,136	10,511	4,364	23,114	8,695	11,699	2,720	6,517	993	5,524	3,454	2,100	1,354
1966	65,019	31,424	8,759	7,198	11,064	4,403	23,650	8,989	12,047	2,614	6,740	976	5,764	3,206	1,963	1,243
1967	66,361	32,395	9,287	7,287	11,435	4,387	23,863	9,229	12,002	2,635	6,971	934	6,037	3,130	1,862	1,268
1968	67,751	33,561	9,685	7,551	11,836	4,489	24,063	9,359	12,023	2,681	7,065	947	6,118	3,062	1,828	1,234
1969	69,518	34,647	10,074	7,733	12,314	4,527	24,647	9,484	12,368	2,795	7,289	917	6,372	2,935	1,759	1,176
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES																
1958	6,422	884	262	154	390	78	2,614	378	1,293	943	2,122	986	1,136	804	240	564
1959	6,624	954	304	163	404	83	2,728	389	1,321	1,018	2,019	973	1,136	830	232	598
1960	6,927	1,113	331	178	503	101	2,780	415	1,414	951	2,196	982	1,214	841	219	622
1961	6,832	1,117	318	174	528	97	2,694	426	1,393	875	2,241	989	1,252	780	202	578
1962	7,004	1,175	372	189	509	105	2,783	428	1,408	947	2,295	1,022	1,273	753	195	558
1963	7,140	1,268	434	192	520	122	2,853	469	1,468	916	2,344	1,018	1,326	675	167	508
1964	7,383	1,385	499	192	568	125	2,998	525	1,515	957	2,381	998	1,383	621	145	476
1965	7,643	1,493	524	204	630	135	3,133	521	1,646	966	2,419	963	1,456	599	138	461
1966	7,875	1,644	551	207	748	138	3,300	600	1,782	918	2,472	928	1,544	460	128	332
1967	8,011	1,837	592	209	899	138	3,398	617	1,882	899	2,353	835	1,519	423	107	317
1968	8,169	1,991	641	225	967	158	3,462	656	1,932	874	2,315	777	1,538	403	98	305
1969	8,384	2,197	695	254	1,083	166	3,591	709	2,004	877	2,239	714	1,525	356	84	272
	Percent distribution															
WHITE																
1958	100.0	45.8	11.8	11.7	15.4	6.9	36.6	14.3	17.9	4.5	9.5	1.7	7.7	8.0	5.0	3.0
1959	100.0	45.9	11.8	11.7	15.3	7.1	36.7	14.1	18.1	4.5	9.6	1.7	8.0	7.8	4.8	3.0
1960	100.0	46.6	12.1	11.7	15.7	7.0	36.2	13.8	17.9	4.4	9.9	1.7	8.2	7.4	4.3	3.0
1961	100.0	47.1	12.5	11.8	15.8	7.0	35.6	13.9	17.5	4.2	10.2	1.8	8.4	7.0	4.3	2.8
1962	100.0	47.7	12.8	12.1	16.0	6.7	35.6	13.8	17.7	4.1	10.2	1.7	8.5	6.5	4.0	2.5
1963	100.0	47.3	12.9	11.7	16.1	6.6	36.2	13.9	18.1	4.1	10.4	1.7	8.8	6.1	3.7	2.4
1964	100.0	47.6	13.0	11.7	16.3	6.6	36.1	13.7	18.4	4.1	10.5	1.7	8.8	5.8	3.5	2.3
1965	100.0	47.9	13.2	11.2	16.6	6.9	36.4	13.7	18.4	4.3	10.3	1.6	8.7	5.4	3.3	2.1
1966	100.0	48.3	13.5	11.1	17.0	6.8	36.4	13.8	18.5	4.0	10.4	1.5	8.9	4.9	3.0	1.9
1967	100.0	48.8	14.0	11.0	17.2	6.6	36.0	13.9	18.1	4.0	10.5	1.4	9.1	4.7	2.8	1.9
1968	100.0	49.5	14.3	11.1	17.5	6.6	35.5	13.8	17.7	4.0	10.4	1.4	9.0	4.5	2.7	1.8
1969	100.0	49.8	14.5	11.1	17.7	6.5	35.5	13.6	17.8	4.0	10.5	1.3	9.2	4.2	2.5	1.7
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES																
1958	100.0	13.8	4.1	2.4	6.1	1.2	40.7	5.9	20.1	14.7	33.0	15.4	17.7	12.5	3.7	8.8
1959	100.0	14.4	4.6	2.5	6.1	1.3	41.2	5.9	19.9	15.4	31.8	14.7	17.1	12.5	3.5	9.0
1960	100.0	16.1	4.8	2.6	7.3	1.5	40.1	6.0	20.4	13.7	31.7	14.2	17.5	12.1	3.2	9.0
1961	100.0	16.3	4.7	2.5	7.7	1.4	39.4	6.2	20.4	12.8	32.8	14.5	18.3	11.4	3.0	8.5
1962	100.0	16.8	5.3	2.7	7.3	1.5	39.7	6.1	20.1	13.5	32.8	14.6	18.2	10.8	2.8	8.0
1963	100.0	17.8	6.1	2.7	7.3	1.7	40.0	6.6	20.6	12.8	32.8	14.3	18.6	9.5	2.3	7.1
1964	100.0	18.8	6.8	2.6	7.7	1.7	40.6	7.1	20.5	13.0	32.2	13.5	18.7	8.4	2.0	6.4
1965	100.0	19.5	6.9	2.7	8.2	1.8	41.0	6.8	21.5	12.6	31.6	12.6	19.0	7.8	1.8	6.0
1966	100.0	20.9	7.0	2.6	9.5	1.8	41.9	7.6	22.6	11.7	31.4	11.8	19.6	5.8	1.6	4.2
1967	100.0	22.9	7.4	2.6	11.2	1.7	42.4	7.7	23.5	11.2	29.4	10.4	19.0	5.3	1.3	4.0
1968	100.0	24.4	7.8	2.8	11.8	1.9	42.4	8.0	23.6	10.7	28.3	9.5	18.8	4.9	1.2	3.7
1969	100.0	26.2	8.3	3.0	12.9	2.0	42.8	8.5	23.9	10.5	26.7	8.5	18.2	4.2	1.0	3.2

[1] See footnote 1, table A-9.

Table A-11. Employed Persons by Type of Industry and Class of Worker: Annual Averages, 1947–69

[Persons 14 years and over for 1947-66, 16 years and over for 1967 forward]

Year	Total employed	Agriculture				Nonagricultural industries						
		Total	Wage and salary workers	Self-employed workers	Unpaid family workers	Total	Wage and salary workers				Self-employed workers	Unpaid family workers
							Total	Private household[1]	Government	Other		
	Number employed (thousands)											
1947	58,027	8,266	1,677	4,973	1,616	49,761	43,290	1,714	5,041	36,534	6,045	427
1948	59,378	7,973	1,746	4,671	1,556	51,405	44,866	1,731	5,288	37,847	6,139	401
1949	58,710	8,026	1,845	4,618	1,563	50,684	44,080	1,772	5,440	36,869	6,208	396
1950	59,957	7,507	1,733	4,346	1,427	52,450	45,977	1,995	5,817	38,165	6,069	404
1951	61,005	7,054	1,647	4,022	1,386	53,951	47,682	2,055	6,089	39,538	5,869	400
1952	61,293	6,805	1,526	3,936	1,342	54,488	48,387	1,922	6,493	39,971	5,670	431
1953	62,213	6,562	1,467	3,821	1,273	55,651	49,434	1,985	6,572	40,877	5,794	423
1954	61,238	6,504	1,452	3,821	1,230	54,733	48,409	1,919	6,643	39,847	5,880	445
1955	63,193	6,730	1,700	3,731	1,299	56,464	50,054	2,216	6,838	40,999	5,886	524
1956 [2]	64,979	6,585	1,692	3,570	1,323	58,394	51,877	2,359	6,934	42,584	5,936	581
1957	65,011	6,222	1,687	3,304	1,231	58,789	52,073	2,328	7,185	42,559	6,089	626
1958	63,966	5,844	1,671	3,087	1,086	58,122	51,332	2,456	7,481	41,394	6,185	605
1959	65,581	5,836	1,689	3,027	1,121	59,745	52,850	2,520	7,695	42,636	6,298	597
1960	66,681	5,723	1,866	2,802	1,054	60,958	53,976	2,489	7,943	43,544	6,367	615
1961	66,796	5,463	1,733	2,744	985	61,333	54,284	2,594	8,186	43,505	6,388	662
1962	67,846	5,190	1,666	2,619	905	62,657	55,762	2,626	8,703	44,433	6,271	623
1963	68,809	4,946	1,676	2,437	834	63,863	57,081	2,583	9,093	45,405	6,195	587
1964	70,357	4,761	1,582	2,366	813	65,596	58,736	2,621	9,363	46,752	6,266	594
1965	72,179	4,585	1,492	2,307	786	67,594	60,765	2,548	9,623	48,594	6,213	616
1966	74,065	4,206	1,369	2,147	690	69,859	63,182	2,496	10,346	50,340	6,101	576
1967 [3]	74,372	3,844	1,301	1,996	547	70,527	64,848	1,966	11,146	51,737	5,174	506
1968	75,920	3,817	1,281	1,985	550	72,103	66,517	1,916	11,590	53,011	5,102	485
1969	77,902	3,606	1,179	1,896	531	74,296	68,527	1,826	12,023	54,678	5,253	517
	Percent distribution											
1947	100.0	14.2	2.9	8.6	2.8	85.8	74.6	3.0	8.7	63.0	10.4	0.7
1948	100.0	13.4	2.9	7.9	2.6	86.6	75.6	2.9	8.9	63.7	10.3	.7
1949	100.0	13.7	3.1	7.9	2.7	86.3	75.1	3.0	9.3	62.8	10.6	.7
1950	100.0	12.5	2.9	7.2	2.4	87.5	76.7	3.3	9.7	63.7	10.1	.7
1951	100.0	11.6	2.7	6.6	2.3	88.4	78.2	3.4	10.0	64.8	9.6	.7
1952	100.0	11.1	2.5	6.4	2.2	88.9	78.9	3.1	10.6	65.2	9.3	.7
1953	100.0	10.5	2.4	6.1	2.0	89.5	79.5	3.2	10.6	65.7	9.3	.7
1954	100.0	10.6	2.4	6.2	2.0	89.4	79.1	3.1	10.8	65.1	9.6	.7
1955	100.0	10.6	2.7	5.9	2.1	89.4	79.2	3.5	10.8	64.9	9.3	.8
1956 [2]	100.0	10.1	2.6	5.5	2.0	89.9	79.8	3.6	10.7	65.5	9.1	.9
1957	100.0	9.6	2.6	5.1	1.9	90.4	80.1	3.6	11.1	65.5	9.4	1.0
1958	100.0	9.1	2.6	4.8	1.7	90.9	80.2	3.8	11.7	64.7	9.7	.9
1959	100.0	8.9	2.6	4.6	1.7	91.1	80.6	3.8	11.7	65.0	9.6	.9
1960	100.0	8.6	2.8	4.2	1.6	91.4	80.9	3.7	11.9	65.3	9.5	.9
1961	100.0	8.2	2.6	4.1	1.5	91.8	81.3	3.9	12.3	65.1	9.6	1.0
1962	100.0	7.6	2.5	3.9	1.3	92.4	82.2	3.9	12.8	65.5	9.2	.9
1963	100.0	7.2	2.4	3.5	1.2	92.8	83.0	3.8	13.2	66.0	9.0	.9
1964	100.0	6.8	2.2	3.4	1.2	93.2	83.5	3.7	13.3	66.4	8.9	.8
1965	100.0	6.4	2.1	3.2	1.1	93.6	84.2	3.5	13.3	67.3	8.6	.9
1966	100.0	5.7	1.8	2.9	.9	94.3	85.3	3.4	14.0	68.0	8.2	.8
1967 [3]	100.0	5.2	1.7	2.7	.7	94.8	87.2	2.6	15.0	69.6	7.0	.7
1968	100.0	5.0	1.7	2.6	.7	95.0	87.6	2.5	15.3	69.8	6.7	.6
1969	100.0	4.6	1.5	2.4	.7	95.4	88.0	2.3	15.4	70.2	6.7	.7

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[1] Differs from the occupation group of private household workers. These figures relate to wage and salary workers in private households regardless of type of occupation, while the occupational data relate to persons whose occupational category is service worker in private households, regardless of class of worker status.

[2] Data for employed persons for the period 1947–56 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. Two groups averaging about 250,000 workers who were formerly classified as employed (with a job but not at work)—those on temporary layoff and those waiting to start new wage and salary jobs within 30 days—were assigned to different classifications, mostly to the unemployed. The changes mainly affected the total for nonagricultural wage and salary workers, which was reduced by about 0.5 percent; there was little impact on any individual category in the group.

[3] Beginning with 1967, data refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967. Neither revised historical data nor overlap data for 1966 are available.

Table A-12. Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Color: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Year	Number unemployed (thousands)									Unemployment rate								
	Total	Male	Female	White			Negro and other races			Total	Male	Female	White			Negro and other races		
				Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female				Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1947	2,311	1,692	619	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	3.9	4.0	3.7	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
1948	2,276	1,559	717	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	3.8	3.6	4.1	3.5	3.4	3.8	5.9	5.8	6.1
1949	3,637	2,572	1,065	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	5.9	5.9	6.0	5.6	5.6	5.7	8.9	9.6	7.9
1950	3,288	2,239	1,049	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	5.3	5.1	5.7	4.9	4.7	5.3	9.0	9.4	8.4
1951	2,055	1,221	834	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	3.3	2.8	4.4	3.1	2.6	4.2	5.3	4.9	6.1
1952	1,883	1,185	698	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	3.0	2.8	3.6	2.8	2.5	3.3	5.4	5.2	5.7
1953	1,834	1,202	632	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	2.9	2.8	3.3	2.7	2.5	3.1	4.5	4.8	4.1
1954	3,532	2,344	1,188	2,860	1,913	947	674	431	243	5.5	5.3	6.0	5.0	4.8	5.6	9.9	10.3	9.3
1955	2,852	1,854	998	2,248	1,475	773	601	376	225	4.4	4.2	4.9	3.9	3.7	4.3	8.7	8.8	8.4
1956	2,750	1,711	1,039	2,162	1,368	794	592	345	247	4.1	3.8	4.8	3.6	3.4	4.2	8.3	7.9	8.9
1957	2,859	1,841	1,018	2,289	1,478	811	569	363	206	4.3	4.1	4.7	3.8	3.6	4.3	7.9	8.3	7.3
1958	4,602	3,098	1,504	3,679	2,488	1,191	925	611	314	6.8	6.8	6.8	6.1	6.1	6.2	12.6	13.8	10.8
1959	3,740	2,420	1,320	2,947	1,904	1,044	794	518	276	5.5	5.3	5.9	4.8	4.6	5.3	10.7	11.5	9.4
1960	3,852	2,486	1,366	3,063	1,987	1,076	787	497	290	5.5	5.4	5.9	4.9	4.8	5.3	10.2	10.7	9.4
1961	4,714	2,997	1,717	3,742	2,398	1,344	970	599	371	6.7	6.4	7.2	6.0	5.7	6.5	12.4	12.8	11.8
1962	3,911	2,423	1,488	3,052	1,915	1,137	859	508	351	5.5	5.2	6.2	4.9	4.6	5.5	10.9	10.9	11.0
1963	4,070	2,472	1,598	3,208	1,976	1,232	864	496	368	5.7	5.2	6.5	5.0	4.7	5.8	10.8	10.5	11.2
1964	3,786	2,205	1,581	2,999	1,779	1,220	786	426	360	5.2	4.6	6.2	4.6	4.1	5.5	9.6	8.9	10.6
1965	3,366	1,914	1,452	2,691	1,556	1,135	676	359	317	4.5	4.0	5.5	4.1	3.6	5.0	8.1	7.4	9.2
1966	2,875	1,551	1,324	2,253	1,240	1,013	621	311	310	3.8	3.2	4.8	3.3	2.8	4.3	7.3	6.3	8.6
1967	2,975	1,508	1,468	2,338	1,208	1,130	638	299	338	3.8	3.1	5.2	3.4	2.7	4.6	7.4	6.0	9.1
1968	2,817	1,419	1,397	2,226	1,142	1,084	590	277	313	3.6	2.9	4.8	3.2	2.6	4.3	6.7	5.6	8.3
1969	2,831	1,403	1,428	2,261	1,137	1,124	570	266	304	3.5	2.8	4.7	3.1	2.5	4.2	6.4	5.3	7.8

[1] Absolute numbers by color are not available prior to 1954, and rates by color are not available for 1947.

Table A-13. Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Sex and year	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
	Number unemployed (thousands)									
MALE										
1947	1,692	114	156	392	349	250	203	162	67	28
1948	1,559	112	143	324	289	233	201	178	81	31
1949	2,572	145	207	485	539	414	347	310	125	30
1950	2,239	139	179	377	467	348	327	286	117	41
1951	1,221	102	89	155	241	192	193	162	87	29
1952	1,185	116	89	155	233	192	182	145	73	32
1953	1,202	94	90	152	236	208	196	167	60	26
1954	2,344	142	168	327	517	431	372	275	112	28
1955	1,854	134	140	248	353	328	285	265	102	35
1956	1,711	134	135	240	348	278	270	216	90	46
1957	1,841	140	159	283	349	304	302	220	83	52
1958	3,098	185	231	478	685	552	492	349	124	57
1959	2,420	191	207	343	483	407	390	287	112	53
1960	2,486	200	225	369	492	415	392	294	96	55
1961	2,997	221	258	457	585	507	473	374	122	63
1962	2,423	187	220	381	446	405	381	300	103	65
1963	2,472	248	252	396	444	386	358	289	97	65
1964	2,205	257	230	384	345	323	319	262	85	66
1965	1,914	247	232	311	293	284	253	221	75	66
1966	1,551	220	212	221	238	219	197	180	65	71
1967	1,508	241	207	235	219	185	199	164	60	87
1968	1,419	234	193	258	205	171	165	132	61	88
1969	1,403	244	197	270	205	155	157	127	48	86
FEMALE										
1947	619	63	81	124	134	99	72	39	10	18
1948	717	66	86	132	169	113	90	49	12	18
1949	1,065	93	130	195	237	189	124	74	21	18
1950	1,049	87	108	184	235	182	151	82	20	24
1951	834	66	79	118	194	162	125	76	16	17
1952	698	64	76	113	156	133	92	50	13	17
1953	632	56	67	104	143	117	84	51	10	10
1954	1,188	79	112	177	276	249	176	99	20	19
1955	998	77	99	148	224	193	151	90	18	18
1956	1,039	97	112	155	206	198	159	95	19	28
1957	1,018	90	107	147	224	195	146	80	28	25
1958	1,504	114	148	223	308	319	239	122	31	22
1959	1,320	110	146	200	242	266	214	119	23	20
1960	1,366	124	162	214	260	256	222	101	25	24
1961	1,717	142	207	265	304	342	278	141	36	30
1962	1,488	124	189	255	267	283	223	111	37	31
1963	1,598	172	211	262	286	287	231	120	29	31
1964	1,581	179	207	276	262	281	223	122	33	24
1965	1,452	164	231	246	236	263	183	101	27	24
1966	1,324	175	229	224	201	207	173	86	27	30
1967	1,468	160	231	277	261	237	185	93	26	38
1968	1,397	179	233	285	238	199	149	87	27	39
1969	1,428	192	220	290	247	203	163	89	24	43

Table A–13. Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–69—Continued

Sex and year	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
	Unemployment rate									
MALE										
1947	4.0	10.3	11.3	8.5	3.4	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.8	4.8
1948	3.6	10.1	9.6	6.9	2.8	2.4	2.5	3.1	3.4	5.4
1949	5.9	13.7	14.6	10.4	5.2	4.3	4.3	5.4	5.1	5.2
1950	5.1	13.3	12.3	8.1	4.4	3.6	4.0	4.9	4.8	6.6
1951	2.8	9.4	7.0	3.9	2.3	2.0	2.4	2.8	3.5	4.7
1952	2.8	10.5	7.4	4.6	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.4	3.0	5.5
1953	2.8	8.8	7.2	5.0	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.8	2.4	4.6
1954	5.3	13.9	13.2	10.7	4.8	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.4	4.9
1955	4.2	12.5	10.8	7.7	3.3	3.1	3.2	4.3	4.0	6.2
1956	3.8	11.7	10.4	6.9	3.3	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.5	6.9
1957	4.1	12.4	12.3	7.8	3.3	2.8	3.3	3.5	3.4	7.6
1958	6.8	16.3	17.8	12.7	6.5	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.2	8.4
1959	5.3	15.8	14.9	8.7	4.7	3.7	4.1	4.5	4.8	7.8
1960	5.4	15.5	15.0	8.9	4.8	3.8	4.1	4.6	4.2	8.6
1961	6.4	18.3	16.3	10.7	5.7	4.6	4.9	5.7	5.5	8.7
1962	5.2	15.9	13.8	8.9	4.5	3.6	3.9	4.6	4.6	8.3
1963	5.2	18.8	15.9	8.8	4.5	3.5	3.6	4.3	4.5	8.8
1964	4.6	17.1	14.6	8.1	3.5	2.9	3.2	3.9	4.0	9.0
1965	4.0	16.1	12.4	6.3	3.0	2.6	2.5	3.3	3.5	8.6
1966	3.2	13.7	10.2	4.6	2.4	2.0	2.0	2.6	3.1	8.9
1967	3.1	14.5	10.5	4.7	2.1	1.7	1.9	2.4	2.8	10.5
1968	2.9	13.9	9.7	5.1	1.9	1.6	1.6	1.9	2.9	10.3
1969	2.8	13.8	9.4	5.1	1.9	1.5	1.5	1.8	2.2	9.8
FEMALE										
1947	3.7	9.8	6.8	4.6	3.6	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.2	7.8
1948	4.1	9.8	7.4	4.9	4.3	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.3	7.3
1949	6.0	14.4	11.2	7.3	5.9	4.7	4.0	4.4	3.8	7.4
1950	5.7	14.2	9.8	6.9	5.7	4.4	4.5	4.5	3.4	9.0
1951	4.4	10.0	7.2	4.4	4.5	3.8	3.5	4.0	2.9	6.6
1952	3.6	9.1	7.3	4.5	3.6	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.2	7.0
1953	3.3	8.5	6.4	4.3	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.5	1.4	4.2
1954	6.0	12.7	10.5	7.3	6.6	5.3	4.6	4.6	3.0	7.5
1955	4.9	12.0	9.1	6.1	5.3	4.0	3.6	3.8	2.3	7.0
1956	4.8	13.2	9.9	6.3	4.8	3.9	3.6	3.6	2.3	8.9
1957	4.7	12.6	9.4	6.0	5.3	3.8	3.2	3.0	3.4	7.5
1958	6.8	16.6	12.9	8.9	7.3	6.2	4.9	4.5	3.8	6.6
1959	5.9	14.4	12.9	8.1	5.9	5.1	4.2	4.1	2.8	5.7
1960	5.9	15.4	13.0	8.3	6.3	4.8	4.2	3.4	2.8	7.9
1961	7.2	18.3	15.1	9.8	7.3	6.3	5.1	4.5	3.9	6.2
1962	6.2	16.8	13.5	9.1	6.5	5.2	4.1	3.5	4.1	6.7
1963	6.5	20.3	15.2	8.9	6.9	5.1	4.2	3.6	3.2	7.6
1964	6.2	18.8	15.1	8.6	6.3	5.0	3.9	3.5	3.4	5.9
1965	5.5	17.2	14.8	7.3	5.5	4.6	3.2	2.8	2.8	5.7
1966	4.8	16.6	12.6	6.3	4.5	3.6	2.9	2.3	2.8	6.3
1967	5.2	14.8	12.7	7.0	5.4	4.0	3.1	2.4	2.7	7.2
1968	4.8	15.9	12.9	6.7	4.7	3.4	2.4	2.2	2.7	7.0
1969	4.7	15.5	11.8	6.3	4.6	3.4	2.6	2.2	2.3	7.5

Table A–14. Unemployment Rates of Persons 16 Years and Over, by Color, Sex, and Age: Annual Averages, 1948–69

Item	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
WHITE										
Male										
1948	3.4	10.2	9.4	6.4	2.6	2.1	2.4	3.0	3.3	5.9
1949	5.6	13.4	14.2	9.8	4.9	3.9	4.0	5.3	5.0	5.1
1950	4.7	13.4	11.7	7.7	3.9	3.2	3.7	4.7	4.6	5.8
1951	2.6	9.5	6.7	3.6	2.0	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.4	4.7
1952	2.5	10.9	7.0	4.3	1.9	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.9	5.5
1953	2.5	8.9	7.1	4.5	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.7	2.3	4.6
1954	4.8	14.0	13.0	9.8	4.2	3.6	3.8	4.3	4.2	4.9
1955	3.7	12.2	10.4	7.0	2.7	2.6	2.9	3.9	3.8	5.1
1956	3.4	11.2	9.7	6.1	2.8	2.2	2.8	3.1	3.4	6.1
1957	3.6	11.9	11.2	7.1	2.7	2.5	3.0	3.4	3.2	6.8
1958	6.1	14.9	16.5	11.7	5.6	4.4	4.8	5.2	5.0	7.9
1959	4.6	15.0	13.0	7.5	3.8	3.2	3.7	4.2	4.5	7.2
1960	4.8	14.6	13.5	8.3	4.1	3.3	3.6	4.1	4.0	8.1
1961	5.7	16.5	15.1	10.0	4.9	4.0	4.4	5.3	5.2	8.0
1962	4.6	15.1	12.7	8.0	3.8	3.1	3.5	4.1	4.1	7.6
1963	4.7	17.8	14.2	7.8	3.9	2.9	3.3	4.0	4.1	7.9
1964	4.1	16.1	13.4	7.4	3.0	2.5	2.9	3.5	3.6	7.7
1965	3.6	14.7	11.4	5.9	2.6	2.3	2.3	3.1	3.4	7.1
1966	2.8	12.5	8.9	4.1	2.1	1.7	1.7	2.5	3.0	7.6
1967	2.7	12.7	9.0	4.2	1.9	1.6	1.8	2.2	2.7	8.9
1968	2.6	12.3	8.2	4.6	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.7	2.8	8.3
1969	2.5	12.5	7.9	4.6	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.7	2.1	8.5
Female										
1948	3.8	9.7	6.8	4.2	3.8	2.9	3.1	3.2	2.4	7.6
1949	5.7	13.6	10.7	6.7	5.5	4.5	4.0	4.3	4.1	7.5
1950	5.3	13.8	9.4	6.1	5.2	4.0	4.3	4.3	3.1	8.0
1951	4.2	9.6	6.5	3.9	4.1	3.5	3.6	4.0	3.3	7.1
1952	3.3	9.3	6.2	3.8	3.2	2.8	2.4	2.5	2.3	7.6
1953	3.1	8.3	6.0	4.1	3.1	2.3	2.3	2.5	1.4	4.0
1954	5.6	12.0	9.4	6.4	5.7	4.9	4.4	4.5	2.8	6.8
1955	4.3	11.6	7.7	5.1	4.3	3.8	3.4	3.6	2.2	7.1
1956	4.2	12.1	8.3	5.1	4.0	3.5	3.3	3.5	2.3	7.8
1957	4.3	11.9	7.9	5.1	4.7	3.7	3.0	3.0	3.5	6.8
1958	6.2	15.6	11.0	7.4	6.6	5.6	4.9	4.3	3.5	5.8
1959	5.3	13.3	11.1	6.7	5.0	4.7	4.0	4.0	3.4	5.2
1960	5.3	14.5	11.5	7.2	5.7	4.2	4.0	3.3	2.8	6.3
1961	6.5	17.0	13.6	8.4	6.6	5.6	4.8	4.3	3.7	6.6
1962	5.5	15.6	11.3	7.7	5.4	4.5	3.7	3.4	4.0	5.6
1963	5.8	18.1	13.2	7.4	5.8	4.6	3.9	3.5	3.0	5.9
1964	5.5	17.1	13.2	7.1	5.2	4.5	3.6	3.5	3.4	4.1
1965	5.0	15.0	13.4	6.3	4.8	4.1	3.0	2.7	2.7	4.4
1966	4.3	14.5	10.7	5.3	3.7	3.3	2.7	2.2	2.7	4.4
1967	4.6	12.9	10.6	6.0	4.7	3.7	2.9	2.3	2.6	5.2
1968	4.3	13.9	11.0	5.9	3.9	3.1	2.3	2.1	2.7	5.4
1969	4.2	13.8	10.0	5.5	4.2	3.2	2.4	2.1	2.4	6.4
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES										
Male										
1948	5.8	9.4	10.5	11.7	4.7	5.2	3.7	3.5	4.6	3.2
1949	9.6	15.8	17.1	15.8	8.5	8.1	7.9	7.0	6.2	6.1
1950	9.4	12.1	17.7	12.6	10.0	7.9	7.4	8.0	7.0	10.8
1951	4.9	8.7	9.6	6.7	5.5	3.4	3.6	4.1	4.7	4.9
1952	5.2	8.0	10.0	7.9	5.5	4.4	4.2	3.7	4.7	5.5
1953	4.8	8.3	8.1	8.1	4.3	3.6	5.1	3.6	3.1	5.1
1954	10.3	13.4	14.7	16.9	10.1	9.0	9.3	7.5	7.5	5.1
1955	8.8	14.8	12.9	12.4	8.6	8.2	6.4	9.0	7.1	12.7
1956	7.9	15.7	14.9	12.0	7.6	6.6	5.4	8.1	4.9	13.0
1957	8.3	16.3	20.0	12.7	8.5	6.4	6.2	5.5	5.9	14.1
1958	13.8	27.1	26.7	19.5	14.7	11.4	10.3	10.1	9.0	13.0
1959	11.5	22.3	27.2	16.3	12.3	8.9	7.9	8.7	8.4	12.7
1960	10.7	22.7	25.1	13.1	10.7	8.2	8.5	9.5	6.3	13.3
1961	12.8	31.0	23.9	15.3	12.9	10.7	10.2	10.5	9.4	14.3
1962	10.9	21.9	21.8	14.6	10.5	8.6	8.3	9.6	11.9	15.2
1963	10.5	27.0	27.4	15.5	9.5	8.0	7.1	7.4	10.1	16.9
1964	8.9	25.9	23.1	12.6	7.7	6.2	5.9	8.1	8.3	19.1
1965	7.4	27.1	20.2	9.3	6.2	5.1	5.1	5.4	5.2	20.3
1966	6.3	22.5	20.5	7.9	4.9	4.2	4.1	4.4	4.9	20.0
1967	6.0	28.9	20.1	8.0	4.4	3.1	3.4	4.1	5.1	24.1
1968	5.6	26.6	19.0	8.3	3.8	2.9	2.5	3.6	4.0	26.0
1969	5.3	24.7	19.0	8.4	3.4	2.4	2.4	3.2	3.2	22.1
Female										
1948	6.1	11.8	14.6	10.2	7.3	4.0	2.9	3.0	1.6	(1)
1949	7.9	20.3	15.9	12.5	8.5	6.2	4.0	5.6	1.6	(1)
1950	8.4	17.6	14.1	13.0	9.1	6.6	5.9	4.8	5.7	(1)
1951	6.1	13.0	15.1	8.8	7.1	5.6	2.8	3.4	1.6	(1)
1952	5.7	6.3	16.8	10.7	6.2	4.0	3.5	2.4	1.5	(1)
1953	4.1	10.3	9.9	5.5	4.9	3.5	2.1	2.1	1.6	(1)
1954	9.3	19.1	21.6	13.2	10.9	7.3	5.9	4.9	5.1	(1)
1955	8.4	15.4	21.4	13.0	10.2	5.5	5.2	5.5	3.3	(1)
1956	8.9	22.0	23.4	14.8	9.1	6.8	5.6	5.3	2.8	(1)
1957	7.3	18.3	21.3	12.2	8.1	4.7	4.2	4.0	4.3	(1)
1958	10.8	25.4	30.0	18.9	11.1	9.2	4.9	6.2	5.6	(1)
1959	9.4	25.8	29.9	14.9	9.7	7.6	6.1	5.0	2.3	(1)
1960	9.4	25.7	24.5	15.3	9.1	8.6	5.7	4.3	4.1	(1)
1961	11.8	31.1	28.2	19.5	11.1	10.7	7.4	6.3	6.5	(1)
1962	11.0	27.8	31.2	18.2	11.5	8.9	7.1	3.6	3.7	(1)
1963	11.2	40.1	31.9	18.7	11.7	8.2	6.1	4.8	3.6	(1)
1964	10.6	36.5	29.2	18.3	11.2	7.8	6.1	3.8	2.2	(1)
1965	9.2	37.8	27.8	13.7	8.4	7.6	4.4	3.9	3.1	(1)
1966	8.6	34.8	29.2	12.6	8.1	5.0	5.0	3.3	4.0	(1)
1967	9.1	32.0	28.3	13.8	8.7	6.2	4.4	3.4	3.4	(1)
1968	8.3	33.7	26.2	12.3	8.4	5.0	3.2	2.8	2.4	(1)
1969	7.8	31.2	25.7	12.0	6.6	4.5	3.7	2.9	1.1	(1)

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[1] Rate not shown where base is less than 50,000.

Table A–15. Unemployment Rates of Persons 16 Years and Over and Percent Distribution of the Unemployed, by Occupation Group: Annual Averages, 1958–69[1]

Year	Total unemployed	Experienced workers														Persons with no previous work experience[2]
		White-collar workers					Blue-collar workers				Service workers			Farmers and farm laborers		
		Total	Professional and technical	Managers, officials, and proprietors	Clerical workers	Sales workers	Total	Craftsmen and foremen	Operatives	Nonfarm laborers	Total	Private household workers	Other service workers			
	Unemployment rate															
1958	6.8	3.1	2.0	1.7	4.4	4.1	10.2	6.8	11.0	15.0	6.9	5.6	7.4	3.2		....
1959	5.5	2.6	1.7	1.3	3.7	3.8	7.6	5.3	7.6	12.6	6.1	5.2	6.4	2.6		....
1960	5.5	2.7	1.7	1.4	3.8	3.8	7.8	5.3	8.0	12.6	5.8	5.3	6.0	2.7		....
1961	6.7	3.3	2.0	1.8	4.6	4.9	9.2	6.3	9.6	14.7	7.2	6.4	7.4	2.8		....
1962	5.5	2.8	1.7	1.5	4.0	4.3	7.4	5.1	7.5	12.5	6.2	5.5	6.5	2.3		....
1963	5.7	2.9	1.8	1.5	4.0	4.3	7.3	4.8	7.5	12.4	6.1	5.8	6.3	3.0		....
1964	5.2	2.6	1.7	1.4	3.7	3.5	6.3	4.1	6.6	10.8	6.0	5.4	6.1	3.1		....
1965	4.5	2.3	1.5	1.1	3.3	3.4	5.3	3.6	5.5	8.6	5.3	4.7	5.5	2.6		....
1966	3.8	2.0	1.3	1.0	2.9	2.8	4.2	2.8	4.4	7.4	4.6	4.1	4.8	2.2		....
1967	3.8	2.2	1.3	.9	3.1	3.2	4.4	2.5	5.0	7.6	4.5	4.1	4.6	2.3		....
1968	3.6	2.0	1.2	1.0	3.0	2.8	4.1	2.4	4.5	7.2	4.4	3.9	4.6	2.1		....
1969	3.5	2.1	1.3	.9	3.0	2.9	3.9	2.2	4.4	6.7	4.2	3.6	4.3	1.9		....
	Percent distribution															
1958	100.0	18.4	3.0	2.6	9.1	3.7	57.4	13.4	30.6	13.4	12.1	2.5	9.5	3.8		8.3
1959	100.0	19.7	3.3	2.4	9.5	4.5	52.6	12.7	26.0	14.0	13.4	2.9	10.5	3.8		10.5
1960	100.0	20.2	3.4	2.5	10.0	4.3	52.8	12.3	27.1	13.3	12.9	2.9	10.0	3.7		10.4
1961	100.0	21.0	3.4	2.8	10.1	4.6	51.1	12.4	26.5	12.3	13.6	3.0	10.6	3.1		11.3
1962	100.0	21.7	3.6	2.8	10.6	4.7	49.2	11.8	24.9	12.4	14.2	3.0	11.2	2.7		12.1
1963	100.0	21.7	3.8	2.7	10.6	4.6	47.7	11.2	24.7	11.9	13.9	3.0	10.9	3.3		13.4
1964	100.0	21.6	3.9	2.7	10.8	4.1	45.3	10.3	23.9	11.1	14.9	3.1	11.8	3.6		14.7
1965	100.0	22.3	4.0	2.5	11.1	4.8	43.4	10.2	22.9	10.3	14.9	2.9	12.0	3.3		16.1
1966	100.0	23.6	4.3	2.6	12.1	4.6	41.5	9.7	21.9	9.9	15.5	2.9	12.7	2.8		16.6
1967	100.0	25.3	4.5	2.3	13.4	5.1	42.6	8.4	24.5	9.7	14.8	2.5	12.3	2.9		14.5
1968	100.0	25.7	4.5	2.7	13.9	4.7	41.7	8.7	23.2	9.8	15.5	2.5	13.0	2.6		14.5
1969	100.0	27.6	5.1	2.7	14.8	4.9	40.8	8.0	23.4	9.4	14.8	2.2	12.7	2.2		14.6

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[1] Data for persons 16 years and over are not available prior to 1958. The lower age limit for the inclusion of persons in labor force statistics was raised from 14 to 16 years of age beginning with the publication of data for 1967, and revisions of occupational data were not possible for years prior to 1958.

[2] Unemployed persons who never held a full-time civilian job.

Table A-16. Unemployment Rates and Percent Distribution of the Unemployed, by Major Industry Group: Annual Averages, 1948–69

[Persons 14 years and over for 1948–66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward]

Year	Total unemployed[1]	Experienced wage and salary workers												
		Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries										
				Total	Mining, forestry, fisheries	Construction	Manufacturing			Transportation and public utilities	Wholesale and retail trade	Finance, insurance, real estate	Service industries	Public administration
							Total	Durable goods	Nondurable goods					
	Unemployment rate													
1948	3.4	3.7	4.7	3.7	2.9	7.6	3.5	3.4	3.6	3.0	4.3	1.6	3.5	2.0
1949	5.5	6.2	6.5	6.2	8.5	11.9	7.2	7.4	6.9	5.2	5.8	1.8	5.1	2.9
1950	5.0	5.6	8.2	5.4	6.6	10.7	5.6	5.2	6.0	4.1	5.8	2.0	5.0	2.8
1951	3.0	3.2	3.9	3.2	3.8	6.0	3.3	2.6	4.0	1.9	3.7	1.3	3.1	1.6
1952	2.7	2.9	3.9	2.8	3.4	5.5	2.8	2.4	3.3	1.9	3.1	1.5	2.6	1.1
1953	2.5	2.7	4.7	2.6	4.9	6.1	2.5	2.0	3.1	1.8	3.0	1.6	2.4	1.2
1954	5.0	5.5	8.0	5.4	12.3	10.5	6.1	6.5	5.7	4.8	5.2	2.0	4.0	2.0
1955	4.0	4.3	6.4	4.2	8.2	9.2	4.2	4.0	4.4	3.5	4.3	2.1	3.8	1.8
1956[2]	3.8	3.9	6.5	3.8	6.4	8.3	4.2	4.0	4.4	2.4	4.1	1.4	3.2	1.6
1957	4.3	4.5	6.7	4.5	6.3	9.8	5.0	4.9	5.3	3.1	4.5	1.8	3.4	2.0
1958	6.8	7.2	9.9	7.1	10.6	13.7	9.2	10.5	7.6	5.6	6.7	2.9	4.6	3.0
1959	5.5	5.6	8.7	5.5	9.7	12.0	6.0	6.1	5.9	4.2	5.8	2.6	4.3	2.3
1960	5.6	5.7	8.0	5.6	9.5	12.2	6.2	6.3	6.0	4.3	5.9	2.4	4.1	2.6
1961	6.7	6.8	9.3	6.7	11.6	14.1	7.7	8.4	6.7	5.1	7.2	3.3	4.9	2.7
1962	5.6	5.5	7.3	5.5	8.6	12.0	5.8	5.7	5.9	3.9	6.3	3.1	4.3	2.2
1963	5.7	5.5	8.9	5.4	7.5	11.9	5.7	5.4	6.0	3.9	6.2	2.7	4.4	2.5
1964	5.2	5.0	9.3	4.8	7.6	9.9	4.9	4.7	5.3	3.3	5.7	2.5	4.1	2.3
1965	4.6	4.2	7.3	4.2	5.5	9.0	4.0	3.4	4.6	2.7	5.0	2.3	3.8	1.9
1966	3.9	3.5	6.5	3.4	3.8	7.1	3.2	2.7	3.8	2.0	4.4	2.1	3.2	1.6
1966[3]	3.8	3.5	6.6	3.5	3.7	7.1	3.2	2.7	3.8	2.0	4.4	2.1	3.3	1.6
1967	3.8	3.6	6.9	3.6	4.0	6.6	3.6	3.4	4.1	2.3	4.2	2.5	3.2	1.8
1968	3.6	3.4	6.3	3.3	3.5	6.2	3.3	3.0	3.7	1.9	4.0	2.2	3.1	1.7
1969	3.5	3.3	6.0	3.2	3.0	5.4	3.3	3.0	3.7	2.1	4.1	2.1	3.0	1.8
	Percent distribution													
1948	100.0	87.7	4.2	83.5	1.4	10.7	28.0	14.3	13.6	6.8	18.8	1.3	13.9	2.7
1949	100.0	89.6	3.7	85.9	2.2	10.9	33.3	17.8	15.4	7.2	16.2	.9	12.9	2.4
1950	100.0	89.1	4.9	84.2	2.0	11.0	28.8	13.9	14.9	5.9	17.9	1.1	14.9	2.6
1951	100.0	87.8	3.6	84.3	2.0	10.8	29.3	12.5	16.8	4.7	18.6	1.3	15.1	2.4
1952	100.0	87.7	3.7	84.0	2.0	12.1	28.3	13.3	15.1	5.3	18.0	1.7	14.5	2.1
1953	100.0	88.6	4.5	84.1	2.7	12.9	27.0	13.1	13.9	5.3	17.9	1.9	14.1	2.2
1954	100.0	89.8	3.9	85.9	3.1	11.4	33.3	20.0	13.3	6.7	16.0	1.2	12.4	1.8
1955	100.0	88.0	4.4	83.6	2.5	12.5	27.5	15.0	12.5	6.0	16.3	1.7	15.0	2.0
1956[2]	100.0	85.8	4.6	81.2	2.1	11.8	29.0	16.1	12.9	4.5	16.6	1.2	14.2	1.9
1957	100.0	87.2	4.2	83.0	1.7	12.5	30.8	17.2	13.6	5.0	15.9	1.5	13.6	2.1
1958	100.0	87.8	3.9	83.9	1.7	11.6	34.4	22.2	12.2	5.4	15.2	1.5	12.1	2.0
1959	100.0	85.6	4.2	81.4	1.8	12.6	27.8	16.1	11.6	5.0	16.3	1.7	14.3	1.9
1960	100.0	85.3	4.1	81.2	1.7	12.3	28.2	16.0	12.2	5.2	16.3	1.7	13.6	2.2
1961	100.0	84.9	3.7	81.2	1.6	11.7	28.8	17.4	11.3	4.9	16.4	1.9	13.9	1.9
1962	100.0	83.9	3.3	80.6	1.4	12.1	26.2	14.4	11.8	4.4	17.1	2.1	15.3	1.9
1963	100.0	82.5	3.9	78.5	1.2	11.4	25.6	13.8	11.8	4.3	16.7	1.9	15.2	2.2
1964	100.0	81.4	4.2	77.2	1.3	10.5	24.4	12.9	11.5	3.9	16.9	2.0	16.0	2.2
1965	100.0	79.5	3.4	76.1	1.0	10.9	22.5	11.1	11.4	3.7	17.1	2.1	16.8	2.1
1966	100.0	79.0	3.2	75.8	.8	10.0	22.0	11.0	11.0	3.2	18.0	2.2	17.6	2.2
1966[3]	100.0	81.0	3.1	77.9	.8	10.3	22.7	11.4	11.3	3.3	18.4	2.2	17.9	2.2
1967	100.0	83.6	3.2	80.4	.8	9.1	26.2	14.2	12.0	3.6	17.6	2.8	17.8	2.6
1968	100.0	83.7	3.1	80.6	.7	9.2	24.7	13.2	11.5	3.4	18.3	2.7	18.8	2.7
1969	100.0	83.8	2.7	81.1	.6	8.3	25.0	13.6	11.5	3.8	18.9	2.6	18.9	2.9

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[1] Also includes the self-employed, unpaid family workers, and those with no previous work experience, not shown separately.

[2] Data through 1956 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. See footnote 2, table A-11.

[3] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

Table A–17. Unemployment Rates by Sex and Marital Status: Annual Averages, 1955–69

[Persons 14 years and over for 1955-66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward]

Year	Both sexes	Male				Female			
		Total	Single	Married, wife present	Widowed, divorced, separated	Total	Single	Married, husband present	Widowed, divorced, separated
1955[1]	4.0	3.9	8.6	2.6	7.1	4.3	5.0	3.7	5.0
1956[2]	3.8	3.5	7.7	2.3	6.2	4.3	5.3	3.6	5.0
1957	4.3	4.1	9.2	2.8	6.8	4.7	5.6	4.3	4.7
1958	6.8	6.8	13.3	5.1	11.2	6.8	7.4	6.5	6.7
1959	5.5	5.3	11.6	3.6	8.6	5.9	7.1	5.2	6.2
1960	5.6	5.4	11.7	3.7	8.4	5.9	7.5	5.2	5.9
1961	6.7	6.5	13.1	4.6	10.3	7.2	8.7	6.4	7.4
1962	5.6	5.3	11.2	3.6	9.9	6.2	7.9	5.4	6.4
1963	5.7	5.3	12.4	3.4	9.6	6.5	8.9	5.4	6.7
1964	5.2	4.7	11.5	2.8	8.9	6.2	8.7	5.1	6.4
1965	4.6	4.0	10.1	2.4	7.2	5.5	8.2	4.5	5.4
1966	3.9	3.3	8.6	1.9	5.6	4.9	7.8	3.7	4.7
1966[3]	3.8	3.2	8.6	1.9	5.5	4.9	7.9	3.7	4.7
1967	3.8	3.1	8.3	1.8	4.9	5.2	7.5	4.5	4.6
1968	3.6	2.9	8.0	1.6	4.2	4.8	7.6	3.9	4.2
1969	3.5	2.8	8.0	1.5	4.0	4.7	7.3	3.9	4.0

[1] Annual averages not available prior to 1955; data for 1 month of each year beginning 1947 are shown in table B-1.

[2] Data through 1956 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. See footnote 2, table A-11.

[3] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

Table A–18. Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Percent Distribution of the Unemployed, by Duration of Unemployment: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Year	Total	Less than 5 weeks	5 and 6 weeks	7 to 10 weeks	11 to 14 weeks	15 weeks and over		
						Total	15 to 26 weeks	27 weeks and over
	Number unemployed (thousands)							
1947	2,311	1,210	203	308	193	398	234	164
1948	2,276	1,300	208	297	164	309	193	111
1949	3,637	1,756	309	555	331	683	427	256
1950	3,288	1,450	275	479	301	782	425	357
1951	2,055	1,177	169	252	153	303	166	137
1952	1,883	1,135	168	223	126	232	148	84
1953	1,834	1,142	149	209	124	211	132	79
1954	3,532	1,605	306	504	305	812	495	317
1955	2,852	1,335	230	368	217	703	367	336
1956	2,750	1,412	234	360	211	533	301	232
1957	2,859	1,408	258	392	240	560	321	239
1958	4,602	1,753	363	596	438	1,452	785	667
1959	3,740	1,585	304	474	335	1,040	469	571
1960	3,852	1,719	324	499	353	956	502	454
1961	4,714	[illegible]	377	587	411	1,532	728	804
1962	3,911	1,659	334	478	323	1,119	534	585
1963	4,070	1,751	358	519	354	1,088	535	553
1964	3,786	1,697	314	483	319	973	490	482
1965	3,366	1,628	286	422	276	755	404	351
1966	2,875	1,535	252	346	206	536	295	241
1967	2,975	1,635	278	397	218	449	271	177
1968	2,817	1,594	247	367	197	412	256	156
1969	2,831	1,629	263	364	200	375	242	133
	Percent distribution							
1947	100.0	52.4	8.8	13.3	8.4	17.2	10.1	7.1
1948	100.0	57.1	9.1	13.0	7.2	13.6	8.5	5.1
1949	100.0	48.3	8.5	15.3	9.1	18.8	11.8	7.0
1950	100.0	44.1	8.4	14.6	9.2	23.8	12.9	10.9
1951	100.0	57.3	8.2	12.3	7.4	14.7	8.1	6.7
1952	100.0	60.2	8.9	11.8	6.7	12.3	7.9	4.5
1953	100.0	62.2	8.1	11.4	6.8	11.5	7.2	4.3
1954	100.0	45.4	8.7	14.3	8.6	23.0	14.0	9.0
1955	100.0	46.8	8.1	12.9	7.6	24.6	12.9	11.8
1956	100.0	51.3	8.5	13.1	7.7	19.4	10.9	8.4
1957	100.0	49.3	9.0	13.7	8.4	19.6	11.2	8.4
1958	100.0	38.1	7.9	13.0	9.5	31.6	17.1	14.5
1959	100.0	42.4	8.1	12.7	9.0	27.8	12.5	15.3
1960	100.0	44.6	8.4	13.0	9.2	24.8	13.0	11.8
1961	100.0	38.3	8.0	12.5	8.7	32.5	15.4	17.1
1962	100.0	42.4	8.5	12.2	8.3	28.6	13.6	15.0
1963	100.0	43.0	8.8	12.8	8.7	26.7	13.1	13.6
1964	100.0	44.8	8.3	12.8	8.4	25.7	12.9	12.7
1965	100.0	48.4	8.5	12.5	8.2	22.4	12.0	10.4
1966	100.0	53.4	8.8	12.0	7.2	18.6	10.3	8.4
1967	100.0	54.9	9.3	13.3	7.3	15.1	9.1	5.9
1968	100.0	56.6	8.8	13.0	7.0	14.6	9.1	5.5
1969	100.0	57.5	9.3	12.9	7.1	13.2	8.5	4.7

Table A–19. Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over, Unemployment Rates, and Duration of Unemployment, by Reason for Unemployment: Annual Averages, 1967–69

Item	Total unemployed	Lost last job	Left last job	Reentered labor force	Never worked before
1967					
UNEMPLOYED					
Number (thousands)	[1] 3,008	1,229	438	945	396
Percent	100.0	40.9	14.6	31.4	13.1
1968					
UNEMPLOYED					
Number (thousands)					
Total	2,817	1,070	431	909	407
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	839	130	97	281	330
Male, 20 years and over	993	599	167	205	22
Female, 20 years and over	985	341	167	422	55
White	2,226	849	346	718	313
Negro and other races	590	221	85	190	94
Percent distribution					
Total	100.0	38.0	15.3	32.3	14.4
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	100.0	15.5	11.6	33.5	39.4
Male, 20 years and over	100.0	60.4	16.8	20.7	2.2
Female, 20 years and over	100.0	34.7	17.0	42.9	5.6
White	100.0	38.1	15.5	32.3	14.1
Negro and other races	100.0	37.4	14.5	33.2	15.9
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE					
Total	3.6	1.3	.5	1.2	.5
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	12.7	1.9	1.5	4.2	5.0
Male, 20 years and over	2.2	1.3	.4	.4	(2)
Female, 20 years and over	3.8	1.3	.6	1.6	.2
White	3.2	1.2	.5	1.0	.4
Negro and other races	6.7	2.5	1.0	2.2	1.1
DURATION OF UNEMPLOYMENT					
Total	2,817	1,070	431	909	407
Less than 5 weeks	1,594	528	257	562	247
5 to 14 weeks	811	336	112	249	113
15 weeks and over	412	205	62	97	47
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	839	130	97	281	330
Less than 5 weeks	528	84	66	174	205
5 to 14 weeks	236	36	25	83	91
15 weeks and over	76	11	7	23	33
Male, 20 years and over	993	599	167	205	22
Less than 5 weeks	493	279	94	109	10
5 to 14 weeks	307	194	44	63	8
15 weeks and over	192	126	28	32	4
Female, 20 years and over	985	341	167	422	55
Less than 5 weeks	573	165	96	279	32
5 to 14 weeks	266	108	44	102	13
15 weeks and over	146	67	27	41	9

Footnotes at end of table.

Table A–19. Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over, Unemployment Rates, and Duration of Unemployment, by Reason for Unemployment: Annual Averages, 1967–69—Continued

Item	Total unemployment	Lost last job	Left last job	Reentered labor force	Never worked before
1969					
UNEMPLOYED					
Number (thousands)					
Total	2,831	1,017	436	965	413
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	853	126	101	294	331
Male, 20 years and over	963	556	164	216	27
Female, 20 years, and over	1,015	335	171	455	55
White	2,261	816	357	767	321
Negro and other races	570	200	79	198	93
Percent distribution					
Total	100.0	35.9	15.4	34.1	14.6
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	100.0	14.8	11.9	34.5	38.8
Male, 20 years and over	100.0	57.8	17.0	22.4	2.8
Female, 20 years and over	100.0	33.0	16.8	44.8	5.5
White	100.0	36.1	15.8	33.9	14.2
Negro and other races	100.0	35.1	13.9	34.7	16.2
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE					
Total	3.5	1.2	.5	1.2	.5
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	12.2	1.8	1.5	4.2	4.8
Male, 20 years and over	2.1	1.2	.4	.5	.1
Female, 20 years and over	3.7	1.2	.6	1.7	.2
White	3.1	1.1	.5	1.1	.4
Negro and other races	6.4	2.3	.9	2.2	1.0
DURATION OF UNEMPLOYMENT					
Total	2,831	1,017	436	965	413
Less than 5 weeks	1,629	515	264	601	249
5 to 14 weeks	827	324	121	255	127
15 weeks and over	375	179	51	109	37
Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	853	126	101	294	331
Less than 5 weeks	539	84	73	183	199
5 to 14 weeks	247	31	22	88	107
15 weeks and over	67	12	5	25	26
Male, 20 years and over	963	556	164	216	27
Less than 5 weeks	493	268	91	119	14
5 to 14 weeks	301	185	50	60	6
15 weeks and over	169	102	23	37	6
Female, 20 years and over	1,015	335	171	455	55
Less than 5 weeks	597	162	100	299	35
5 to 14 weeks	278	108	48	108	14
15 weeks and over	140	65	23	47	6

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[1] Differs slightly from the 1967 total published elsewhere because of technical reasons connected with the introduction of a new series.

[2] Less than 0.05 percent.

Table A–20. Long-Term Unemployment Compared With Total Unemployment, by Sex, Age, and Color: Annual Averages, 1957–69

[Persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward; numbers in thousands]

Item	1969	1968	1967	1966 [1]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
	Total unemployed													
Total: Number	2,831	2,817	2,975	2,875	2,976	3,456	3,876	4,166	4,007	4,806	3,931	3,813	4,631	2,936
Percent	100.0	100 0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE														
Male	49.6	50.4	50.7	54.0	54.6	57.3	58.6	60.9	62.1	63.7	64.6	64.9	67.4	64.5
Under 20 years	15.6	15.2	15.0	15.0	16.9	15.8	14.3	13.6	11.8	11.3	12.2	11.8	10.1	12.0
Under 18	8.6	8.3	8.1	7.6	9.8	9.1	8.3	7.5	6.3	5.9	6.5	6.4	5.2	6.5
18 and 19	7.0	6.9	6.9	7.4	7.1	6.7	5.9	6.1	5.5	5.4	5.7	5.4	4.9	5.4
20 to 24 years	9.5	9.2	7.9	7.7	7.4	9.0	9.9	9.5	9.5	9.5	9.4	9.0	10.2	9.6
25 to 44 years	12.7	13.4	13.6	15.9	15.4	16.7	17.2	19.9	21.2	22.7	23.1	23.3	26.4	22.3
45 to 64 years	10.0	10.5	12.2	13.1	12.7	13.7	15.0	15.5	17.0	17.6	17.5	17.8	18.0	17.8
65 years and over	1.7	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.9	2.7	2.8
Female	50.4	49.6	49.3	46.0	45.4	42.7	41.4	39.1	37.9	36.3	35.4	35.1	32.6	35.5
Under 20 years	14.6	14.6	13.1	14.0	14.6	12.1	10.6	9.9	8.6	7.9	7.9	7.2	6.1	7.6
Under 18	6.8	6.4	5.4	6.1	6.9	5.4	5.2	4.9	3.9	3.6	3.8	3.4	2.9	3.9
18 and 19	7.8	8.3	7.8	8.0	7.7	6.7	5.3	5.1	4.7	4.3	4.1	3.8	3.2	3.6
20 to 24 years	10.2	10.1	9.3	7.8	7.5	7.1	7.1	6.3	6.4	5.5	5.5	5.2	4.8	5.0
25 to 44 years	15.9	15.5	16.7	14.2	13.7	14.4	14.0	13.8	13.7	13.4	13.1	13.3	13.4	14.3
45 to 64 years	8.9	8.4	9.3	9.0	8.7	8.2	8.9	8.4	8.3	8.7	8.2	8.7	7.7	7.7
65 years and over	.8	1.0	.9	.9	.9	.8	.9	.7	.9	.7	.6	.6	.7	1.0
COLOR AND SEX														
White	79.9	79.0	78.6	78.4	78.2	79.7	79.1	78.8	78.1	79.5	79.6	78.8	80.0	80.1
Male	40.2	40.6	40.6	43.1	43.5	46.4	47.2	48.7	49.1	51.0	51.7	51.0	54.2	51.8
Female	39.7	38.5	38.0	35.2	34.7	33.3	31.9	30.1	28.9	28.5	27.9	27.8	25.8	28.3
Negro and other races	20.1	21.0	21.4	21.6	21.8	20.3	20.9	21.2	21.9	20.5	20.4	21.2	20.0	19.9
Male	9.4	9.8	10.1	10.8	11.0	10.9	11.4	12.2	12.9	12.7	12.9	13.8	13.2	12.7
Female	10.7	11.1	11.4	10.8	10.8	9.4	9.5	9.0	9.0	7.8	7.5	7.4	6.8	7.2
	Unemployed 15 weeks and over													
Total: Number	375	412	449	525	536	755	973	1,088	1,119	1,532	956	1,040	1,452	560
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE														
Male	54.0	55.0	56.8	61.6	61.6	60.8	62.3	65.7	67.4	69.3	69.5	71.0	72.7	68.9
Under 20 years	9.1	8.5	10.2	9.7	11.0	10.6	9.8	9.7	8.1	7.8	8.7	8.8	7.3	8.2
Under 18	4.8	4.9	5.3	4.4	5.8	5.6	5.6	4.3	3.7	3.3	4.2	4.4	3.2	4.1
18 and 19	4.3	3.6	4.9	5.3	5.2	4.9	4.2	5.3	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.4	4.1	4.1
20 to 24 years	7.5	6.1	5.5	5.9	5.8	6.8	7.6	8.1	8.4	9.2	8.6	8.5	9.5	7.6
25 to 44 years	15.2	16.5	16.6	18.8	18.4	18.3	17.9	21.2	22.2	25.0	24.0	26.4	29.0	22.0
45 to 64 years	18.4	18.7	19.5	22.4	22.0	21.1	22.9	22.6	24.2	22.8	24.3	22.9	22.7	25.7
65 years and over	3.7	5.1	4.9	4.8	4.5	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.6	4.5	3.9	4.4	3.9	5.7
Female	46.0	45.0	43.2	38.4	38.4	39.2	37.7	34.3	32.6	30.7	30.5	29.0	27.3	31.1
Under 20 years	8.6	9.5	9.1	8.4	8.9	8.2	6.1	5.6	4.9	3.9	4.3	3.5	2.9	4.3
Under 18	3.2	4.4	2.7	3.6	4.3	3.1	2.5	2.3	1.8	1.2	1.7	1.2	1.0	1.6
18 and 19	5.3	5.1	6.4	4.8	4.7	5.2	3.6	3.3	3.1	2.7	2.6	2.3	1.9	2.7
20 to 24 years	7.2	7.5	6.4	4.6	4.3	4.9	5.9	4.3	4.2	4.3	4.7	4.0	3.4	3.4
25 to 44 years	15.8	16.1	14.2	12.7	12.7	14.0	13.9	13.2	13.0	12.3	12.0	11.1	12.8	13.2
45 to 64 years	12.8	10.2	11.8	11.0	10.8	10.7	10.4	10.2	9.3	9.3	8.6	9.8	7.5	9.3
65 years and over	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.3	1.4	.9	1.2	.9	.8	.6	.7	1.1
COLOR AND SEX														
White	78.9	79.3	76.7	76.4	76.3	77.0	77.1	74.0	74.1	77.5	75.1	75.7	78.0	77.4
Male	44.5	45.5	44.9	48.5	48.5	47.9	49.2	49.4	50.7	53.9	52.4	53.4	56.7	53.0
Female	34.4	33.8	31.8	27.9	27.8	29.2	27.9	24.6	23.4	23.6	22.7	22.4	21.3	24.4
Negro and other races	21.1	20.7	23.3	23.6	23.7	22.9	22.9	26.0	25.9	22.5	24.9	24.3	22.0	22.6
Male	9.6	9.7	11.8	13.1	13.2	13.0	13.3	16.4	16.7	15.3	17.1	17.9	16.0	15.8
Female	11.5	10.9	11.6	10.5	10.4	9.9	9.7	9.7	9.2	7.2	7.8	6.4	6.0	6.8

Footnote at end of table.

Table A–20. Long-Term Unemployment Compared With Total Unemployment, by Sex, Age, and Color: Annual Averages, 1957–69—Continued

Item	1969	1968	1967	1966 [1]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
	Unemployed 27 weeks and over													
Total: Number	133	156	179	239	241	351	482	553	585	804	454	571	667	239
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE														
Male	56.1	61.1	61.5	66.4	66.9	65.0	64.8	69.3	69.8	70.7	72.2	72.6	73.6	70.7
Under 20 years	5.3	7.0	8.4	6.7	7.5	9.1	8.8	9.0	7.3	6.5	7.3	7.5	6.3	6.3
Under 18	2.3	4.5	3.9	2.1	2.9	5.1	4.7	3.8	3.4	2.4	3.5	3.5	2.7	3.3
18 and 19	3.0	2.5	4.5	4.6	4.6	4.0	3.9	5.2	3.9	4.0	3.7	3.8	3.6	3.0
20 to 24 years	6.1	7.0	5.0	3.8	3.8	6.6	6.4	7.8	7.7	8.1	7.7	7.8	9.6	5.9
25 to 44 years	16.7	17.2	15.1	21.4	21.3	19.1	16.0	20.4	23.0	24.8	24.2	27.8	28.2	21.8
45 to 64 years	22.7	22.9	25.7	29.0	28.9	25.1	28.0	26.4	26.6	25.9	27.4	24.8	24.2	29.7
65 years and over	5.3	7.0	7.3	5.5	5.4	5.1	5.6	5.6	5.3	5.6	5.6	4.7	5.3	7.5
Female	43.9	38.9	38.5	33.6	33.1	35.0	35.2	30.7	30.2	29.3	27.8	27.4	26.4	29.3
Under 20 years	8.3	7.0	6.7	6.3	6.7	5.1	4.9	4.2	4.1	3.1	3.1	2.6	2.3	3.4
Under 18	2.3	2.5	1.7	2.1	2.5	2.0	2.1	1.8	1.2	.7	1.0	.7	.9	.8
18 and 19	6.1	4.5	5.0	4.2	4.2	3.1	2.9	2.4	2.9	2.4	2.0	1.9	1.4	2.5
20 to 24 years	6.1	7.0	4.5	3.8	3.8	4.0	5.6	4.0	3.7	3.6	4.4	3.7	3.2	2.1
25 to 44 years	15.2	12.1	11.2	10.1	9.6	13.7	12.1	11.4	11.8	12.0	10.8	10.0	12.2	12.6
45 to 64 years	12.9	11.5	12.8	10.9	10.9	10.5	10.5	10.3	9.0	9.7	8.5	10.5	8.0	10.0
65 years and over	1.5	1.3	3.4	2.5	2.1	1.7	2.1	.9	1.5	1.0	1.1	.6	.9	1.3
COLOR AND SEX														
White	78.2	78.8	74.7	75.3	75.4	74.6	74.7	71.8	71.6	76.4	74.0	73.8	77.0	75.9
Male	45.9	50.0	46.6	52.3	52.5	49.6	50.2	50.8	50.4	53.7	53.1	52.6	56.3	53.9
Female	32.3	28.8	28.1	23.0	22.9	25.1	24.5	21.0	21.2	22.7	20.9	21.2	20.7	22.0
Negro and other races	21.8	21.2	25.3	24.7	24.6	25.4	25.3	28.2	28.4	23.6	26.0	26.2	23.0	24.1
Male	10.5	11.5	15.2	14.2	14.2	15.4	14.7	18.4	19.3	17.1	18.9	20.3	17.3	16.6
Female	11.3	9.6	10.1	10.5	10.4	10.0	10.6	9.8	9.1	6.5	7.2	5.9	5.7	7.5

[1] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967; prior to this, the items "under 20 years" and "under 18" referred to persons 14 to 19 years and 14 to 17 years, respectively.

Table A–21. Long-Term Unemployment by Major Industry and Occupation Group: Annual Averages, 1957–69

[Persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward; numbers in thousands]

Industry and occupation group	1969	1968	1967	1966 [1]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957 [2]
	Unemployed 15 weeks and over													
Total: Number	375	412	449	525	536	755	973	1,088	1,119	1,532	956	1,040	1,452	560
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
INDUSTRY GROUP														
Agriculture	3.2	3.2	3.5	4.4	4.7	3.7	3.2	3.0	2.1	2.4	3.6	2.7	2.1	2.9
Nonagricultural industries	87.0	85.4	84.9	83.3	81.7	82.4	84.0	84.8	86.5	88.4	86.4	88.5	90.9	88.8
Wage and salary workers	85.1	83.2	82.8	80.0	78.5	79.9	81.5	82.3	84.1	86.0	83.8	86.0	88.9	85.7
Mining, forestry, fisheries	.8	1.2	.8	1.9	1.7	1.3	2.3	1.5	2.0	2.2	2.8	2.5	2.6	2.9
Construction	9.0	10.0	10.7	10.1	9.9	10.6	9.2	10.8	11.2	11.2	12.3	14.3	10.5	11.9
Manufacturing	28.6	29.2	29.8	24.0	23.3	25.2	28.6	29.9	29.4	34.6	31.3	32.2	42.3	36.9
Durable goods	16.4	16.3	16.7	12.0	11.6	13.3	16.5	17.8	17.6	23.3	19.1	20.1	29.9	21.2
Nondurable goods	12.2	12.9	13.0	12.0	11.8	12.0	12.2	12.1	11.7	11.4	12.2	12.2	12.4	15.7
Transportation and public utilities	4.0	3.6	4.3	4.4	4.3	4.8	4.4	5.1	5.2	6.1	6.3	5.6	6.4	4.8
Wholesale and retail trade	18.0	15.8	16.6	17.3	17.0	17.0	16.7	15.6	17.8	15.5	15.3	15.1	13.5	13.7
Finance and service	21.5	20.4	18.5	20.0	20.0	18.9	17.2	16.1	15.8	13.9	13.3	13.8	11.3	12.7
Public administration	3.2	2.9	2.1	2.5	2.4	2.1	3.1	3.4	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.9
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	1.9	2.2	2.1	3.2	3.2	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.0	3.0
Persons with no previous work experience	9.8	11.4	11.6	12.4	13.6	13.8	12.8	12.1	11.4	9.2	10.0	8.8	7.0	8.4
OCCUPATION GROUP														
Professional and technical workers	5.6	4.9	4.1	4.0	3.9	3.6	3.8	3.3	2.9	2.4	2.5	3.0	2.6	1.4
Farmers and farm managers	.3	.2	.2	.8	.7	.5	.4	.4	.1	.1	.2	.3	.2	.3
Managers, officials, and proprietors	4.0	4.1	3.8	4.2	4.1	3.6	3.5	3.2	3.6	2.6	2.5	3.0	2.8	3.1
Clerical workers	13.3	12.4	12.4	9.3	9.2	10.3	12.3	10.6	9.9	9.8	9.7	9.4	7.8	8.2
Sales workers	5.3	3.6	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.4	3.7	3.9	4.1	4.2	3.6	3.8	2.9	4.4
Craftsmen and foremen	8.8	10.7	9.6	10.7	10.5	10.9	10.6	11.4	12.3	13.6	11.7	12.4	13.7	11.0
Operatives	27.7	26.7	26.6	22.3	21.9	24.3	24.6	26.5	25.4	29.3	29.0	28.7	35.1	31.8
Private household workers	1.9	2.4	1.8	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.0	2.4	2.0	1.6	2.8
Service workers exc. private household	12.8	12.4	12.2	13.9	13.8	12.5	12.0	10.8	11.9	10.6	9.9	10.3	8.9	10.6
Farm laborers and foremen	2.1	1.9	2.1	3.0	3.2	2.7	2.3	2.0	1.5	1.7	2.8	2.6	1.8	2.4
Nonfarm laborers	8.3	9.2	10.9	11.8	11.6	10.5	11.5	13.2	14.2	14.6	15.7	15.7	15.8	15.5
Persons with no previous work experience	9.9	11.4	11.6	12.4	13.6	13.8	12.8	12.1	11.4	9.2	10.0	8.8	7.0	8.4
	Unemployed 27 weeks and over													
Total: Number	133	156	177	239	241	351	482	553	585	804	454	571	667	239
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
INDUSTRY GROUP														
Agriculture	1.5	3.2	3.9	4.2	4.2	3.7	2.7	2.2	1.7	1.6	2.4	2.3	1.8	2.5
Nonagricultural industries	88.7	86.0	84.3	84.3	83.7	83.5	84.2	84.8	87.0	89.3	86.5	89.2	92.0	89.1
Wage and salary workers	85.7	83.4	81.0	80.1	79.5	79.8	81.3	82.6	84.8	86.8	83.2	87.1	90.0	86.2
Mining, forestry, fisheries	.8	2.5	.6	2.1	2.1	2.0	3.5	1.8	2.1	2.4	3.3	3.1	3.3	2.9
Construction	6.8	9.6	10.9	8.1	7.9	6.8	7.7	9.2	8.7	9.5	11.1	10.1	8.8	10.0
Manufacturing	28.6	27.4	29.7	24.6	24.7	26.5	29.5	28.4	30.1	37.1	30.1	37.7	44.9	37.7
Durable goods	15.8	17.8	17.1	12.3	12.1	14.2	17.5	16.5	19.0	25.5	18.8	24.1	31.8	21.4
Nondurable goods	12.8	9.6	12.6	12.3	12.6	12.3	12.1	12.0	11.1	11.6	11.3	13.6	13.2	16.3
Transportation and public utilities	5.3	4.5	3.6	4.7	4.6	5.7	5.0	6.0	6.3	6.6	6.6	6.1	6.8	4.1
Wholesale and retail trade	19.5	14.6	15.4	16.9	16.3	17.7	15.6	15.8	18.8	15.2	15.0	15.2	12.7	14.5
Finance and service	21.1	21.7	18.5	20.9	20.9	18.5	17.3	17.8	16.2	13.2	13.5	12.0	10.9	12.4
Public administration	3.8	3.2	2.2	3.0	2.9	2.6	2.7	3.6	2.6	3.0	3.5	2.8	2.6	4.6
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	3.0	2.5	3.4	4.2	4.2	3.7	2.9	2.2	2.2	2.5	3.3	2.1	2.0	2.9
Persons with no previous work experience	9.8	10.8	11.8	11.4	12.1	12.8	13.1	13.0	11.3	9.1	11.1	8.6	6.2	8.3
OCCUPATION GROUP														
Professional and technical workers	5.3	5.1	3.9	3.8	3.7	4.3	3.3	3.4	3.1	2.5	2.5	3.0	2.4	2.0
Farmers and farm managers	--------	--------	.6	1.7	1.7	1.1	.4	.5	.2	.1	.2	.9	.2	.8
Managers, officials, and proprietors	4.5	4.5	5.9	4.6	4.6	4.3	4.0	3.4	3.9	2.9	2.3	3.0	3.2	3.5
Clerical workers	15.2	12.2	11.0	8.4	8.3	10.5	11.2	9.9	10.2	10.0	8.9	8.7	7.3	7.9
Sales workers	6.1	3.2	5.4	4.2	4.2	4.5	4.2	4.0	4.8	3.6	3.7	4.2	2.9	4.3
Craftsmen and foremen	7.6	10.9	9.0	11.3	11.2	10.8	10.0	10.7	10.9	12.6	11.2	11.7	12.4	9.8
Operatives	26.5	26.3	25.1	23.1	22.9	22.7	25.4	25.7	25.7	29.6	27.8	29.9	36.9	30.7
Private household workers	1.5	2.6	2.0	2.9	2.9	3.4	2.3	2.5	2.7	1.7	2.3	2.1	1.7	2.8
Service workers exc. private household	15.2	12.2	10.7	14.3	14.2	13.9	12.9	11.9	12.3	11.1	10.9	9.6	8.9	11.8
Farm laborers and foremen	.8	1.3	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.1	1.4	1.2	1.1	2.0	2.3	1.5	2.4
Nonfarm laborers	7.6	10.9	12.4	12.2	12.1	9.7	11.2	13.4	13.8	15.8	17.1	16.0	16.5	15.7
Persons with no previous work experience	9.8	10.8	11.8	11.4	12.1	12.8	13.1	13.0	11.3	9.1	11.1	8.6	6.2	8.3

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[1] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

[2] Percent distribution of the occupation groups for 1957 is based on average of data for January, April, July, and October.

Table A–22. Nonagricultural Workers on Full-Time Schedules or on Voluntary Part Time, by Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–69

[Persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward; numbers in thousands]

Item	1969	1968	1967	1966 [1]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
	On full-time schedules [2]													
Total: Number	59,181	57,877	56,865	56,348	56,410	54,692	52,872	51,439	50,619	49,427	49,542	48,865	47,077	48,617
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE														
Male	66.8	67.5	67.8	68.1	68.1	68.9	69.3	69.6	69.6	69.6	69.7	70.1	69.8	70.3
Under 18 years	.6	.6	.5	.6	.7	.6	.6	.5	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.6
18 to 24 years [3]	8.7	8.5	8.7	8.8	8.8	8.7	8.2	7.9	7.8	7.5	7.5	7.2	6.6	6.8
25 to 44 years	31.7	32.2	32.3	32.4	32.4	33.1	33.8	34.3	34.6	34.9	35.0	35.6	35.8	36.1
45 to 64 years	24.2	24.5	24.5	24.5	24.5	24.7	25.0	25.1	24.8	24.7	24.4	24.5	24.4	24.1
65 years and over	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.6
Female	33.2	32.5	32.2	31.9	31.9	31.1	30.7	30.4	30.4	30.4	30.3	29.9	30.2	29.7
Under 18 years	.3	.3	.3	.3	.4	.3	.3	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4
18 to 24 years [3]	7.4	7.0	6.9	6.7	6.7	6.2	5.9	5.6	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.5	5.5
25 to 44 years	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.3	12.2	12.1	12.3	12.3	12.4	12.6	12.7	13.1	13.2
45 to 64 years	12.1	11.8	11.8	11.7	11.7	11.6	11.5	11.4	11.2	11.2	11.1	10.8	10.5	9.9
65 years and over	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8	.8	.9	.9	.8	.8	.8
COLOR AND SEX														
White	89.5	89.6	89.8	89.8	89.8	90.1	90.3	90.6	90.8	90.9	90.8	91.2	91.2	91.0
Male	60.4	61.1	61.4	61.7	61.7	62.6	63.2	63.6	63.7	63.8	63.8	64.3	64.2	64.4
Female	29.1	28.5	28.4	28.1	28.1	27.4	27.2	27.0	27.1	27.1	27.0	26.8	27.0	26.7
Negro and other races	10.5	10.4	10.2	10.2	10.2	9.9	9.7	9.4	9.2	9.1	9.2	8.8	8.8	9.0
Male	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.3	6.2	6.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	5.7	5.6	5.9
Female	4.1	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.2	3.1
SEX AND MARITAL STATUS														
Male:														
Single	8.6	8.5	8.4	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.6	8.9	8.7	8.5	9.0
Married, wife present	54.8	55.7	56.1	56.3	56.3	56.9	57.6	57.8	57.9	57.6	57.4	58.0	57.9	57.7
Widowed, divorced, separated	3.4	3.3	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5
Female:														
Single	7.3	7.3	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.1	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.3	7.5	7.3	7.9	8.0
Married, husband present	19.1	18.5	18.0	17.6	17.6	17.1	16.9	16.4	16.4	16.2	16.0	16.0	15.7	15.2
Widowed, divorced, separated	6.8	6.7	7.0	7.0	7.0	6.9	6.8	7.0	6.8	6.9	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.5
INDUSTRY GROUP														
Wage and salary workers	92.6	92.6	92.4	90.9	90.9	90.4	90.0	89.9	89.5	89.0	89.0	88.8	88.7	88.9
Construction	6.0	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.1	6.0	5.9	6.0	5.9	6.0	6.2	6.2	6.0
Manufacturing	31.6	31.9	32.1	32.0	32.0	31.1	30.7	30.7	30.1	29.5	29.9	29.9	28.9	31.0
Durable goods	19.2	19.2	19.3	19.0	19.0	18.1	17.8	17.9	17.3	16.7	17.0	17.3	16.5	18.3
Nondurable goods	12.4	12.7	12.8	13.0	13.0	12.9	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.9	12.6	12.4	12.7
Transportation and public utilities	7.4	7.3	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.4	7.5	7.7	7.8	8.1	7.9	8.1	8.4
Wholesale and retail trade	14.9	15.2	15.3	15.0	15.0	15.4	15.4	15.4	15.4	15.7	16.0	16.2	16.4	16.0
Finance and service	25.2	24.7	24.4	23.5	23.5	23.3	23.3	23.1	23.0	23.0	22.2	21.8	22.1	20.7
Other industries [4]	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.3	7.2	7.0	6.9	6.9	7.0	6.9
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	7.4	7.4	7.6	9.1	9.1	9.6	10.0	10.1	10.5	11.0	11.0	11.2	11.3	11.1

Footnotes at end of table.

Table A–22. Nonagricultural Workers on Full-Time Schedules or on Voluntary Part Time, by Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–69—Continued

Item	1969	1968	1967	1966 [1]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
	On voluntary part-time schedules [5]													
Total: Number	9,027	8,452	8,048	7,441	8,256	7,607	7,263	6,808	6,597	6,148	5,815	5,569	5,215	5,181
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE														
Male	32.8	32.4	32.9	32.7	35.0	35.0	34.8	34.3	34.1	33.4	33.9	35.0	34.7	34.5
Under 18 years	9.5	9.3	9.7	9.9	14.4	14.5	14.3	13.4	13.7	13.0	13.2	13.8	14.1	14.2
18 to 24 years [3]	11.3	11.1	10.8	10.4	9.3	8.7	7.8	7.8	7.2	7.2	6.7	6.9	6.6	6.3
25 to 44 years	3.0	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.5	2.5	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.3	3.7	3.5	3.5
45 to 64 years	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.3	3.5	3.8	3.9	4.0	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.4
65 years and over	5.7	5.8	6.1	6.1	5.5	5.7	6.1	6.2	6.2	6.5	6.6	6.3	6.0	6.1
Female	67.2	67.6	67.1	67.3	65.0	65.1	65.2	65.7	65.9	66.6	66.1	65.0	65.3	65.5
Under 18 years	8.0	7.8	7.8	8.0	11.6	11.3	11.2	10.5	10.6	10.9	10.2	10.8	10.3	10.1
18 to 24 years [3]	11.6	11.2	11.0	10.0	9.0	8.4	7.9	7.8	7.5	7.3	6.7	6.4	6.2	6.4
25 to 44 years	23.4	23.7	23.7	24.2	21.8	22.1	22.2	23.2	23.5	23.6	23.8	23.3	23.9	24.1
45 to 64 years	19.6	20.2	19.8	20.4	18.3	18.7	19.3	19.6	19.5	19.8	20.2	20.1	20.1	20.3
65 years and over	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.7	4.2	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.9	5.2	4.4	4.8	4.6
COLOR AND SEX														
White	90.0	90.1	89.4	88.9	89.5	89.9	89.5	89.5	90.1	90.6	89.5	89.5	89.3	88.5
Male	30.0	29.7	30.0	29.7	31.9	32.1	31.8	31.5	31.8	31.2	31.2	32.3	32.1	31.8
Female	60.1	60.4	59.4	59.2	57.6	57.8	57.6	58.0	58.3	59.3	58.3	57.2	57.2	56.7
Negro and other races	10.0	9.9	10.6	11.1	10.5	10.1	10.5	10.5	9.9	9.4	10.5	10.5	10.7	11.5
Male	2.8	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.1	2.9	2.9	2.8	2.3	2.2	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7
Female	7.2	7.2	7.7	8.1	7.4	7.2	7.6	7.7	7.6	7.2	7.7	7.9	8.1	8.8
SEX AND MARITAL STATUS														
Male:														
Single	20.6	20.4	20.6	20.2	23.7	23.4	22.4	21.4	21.4	20.7	20.5	21.5	21.2	21.3
Married, wife present	10.5	10.4	10.7	10.9	9.8	10.2	10.6	11.1	11.1	10.9	11.5	11.5	11.4	11.3
Widowed, divorced, separated	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.7
Female:														
Single	17.5	16.7	16.6	16.4	19.1	18.1	18.0	17.4	17.3	17.4	16.2	17.1	16.7	16.9
Married, husband present	40.5	41.4	40.8	41.1	37.1	38.0	37.7	38.3	39.0	39.2	39.6	37.9	38.5	38.3
Widowed, divorced, separated	9.3	9.6	9.7	9.8	8.8	8.9	9.5	10.0	9.6	9.9	10.3	10.0	10.1	10.4
INDUSTRY GROUP														
Wage and salary workers	90.2	90.1	89.0	87.7	87.6	86.3	86.2	85.7	85.4	84.2	84.3	84.0	83.8	84.4
Construction	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.7
Manufacturing	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.4	7.1	6.7	7.2	7.7	8.0	7.5	7.4	7.5	7.1	7.4
Durable goods	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.2	1.9	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.6	1.7	2.1	1.9	2.0
Nondurable goods	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.8	4.7	5.4	5.7	6.0	5.9	5.7	5.5	5.2	5.4
Transportation and public utilities	3.1	2.7	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.4
Wholesale and retail trade	31.0	30.7	29.9	29.0	27.6	27.4	25.9	26.2	25.3	25.0	26.3	26.0	26.2	26.8
Finance and service	45.2	46.0	45.8	45.1	46.2	46.0	46.9	45.4	46.3	45.6	43.9	44.7	44.4	43.9
Other industries [4]	2.6	2.6	2.7	3.0	2.8	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.8	2.3	2.4	2.2
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	9.8	9.9	11.0	12.3	12.4	13.8	13.8	14.3	14.6	15.8	15.7	16.0	16.2	15.6

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[1] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967; prior to this, the item "under 18 years" referred to persons 14 to 17 years.

[2] Includes persons who worked 35 hours or more during the survey week and those who usually work full time but worked part time because of illness, bad weather, holidays, personal business, or other temporary noneconomic reasons.

[3] Data not available for the usual 20- to 24-year age group because the breakdown for the 18- and 19-year age group is not readily available from 1957.

[4] Includes mining, forestry, and fisheries, and also public administration.

[5] Includes persons who wanted only part-time work.

Table A–23. Persons on Part Time for Economic Reasons,[1] by Type of Industry: Annual Averages, 1957–69

[Thousands of persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward]

Industry	1969	1968	1967	1966 [2]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
Total	2,056	1,970	2,163	1,894	1,960	2,209	2,455	2,620	2,661	3,142	2,860	2,640	3,280	2,469
Agriculture	246	255	250	230	246	281	318	332	325	329	300	304	327	300
Nonagricultural industries	1,810	1,715	1,913	1,664	1,714	1,928	2,137	2,288	2,336	2,813	2,560	2,336	2,953	2,169

[1] Includes persons who worked less than 35 hours during the survey week because of slack work, job changing during the week, material shortages, inability to find full-time work, etc.

[2] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

Table A–24. Nonagricultural Workers on Part Time for Economic Reasons,[1] by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1957–69

[Thousands of persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward]

Year	Both sexes	Male						Female					
		Total	Under 18 years [2]	18 to 24 years [3]	25 to 44 years	45 to 64 years	65 years and over	Total	Under 18 years [2]	18 to 24 years [3]	25 to 44 years	45 to 64 years	65 years and over
1957	2,169	1,263	99	181	488	418	76	906	58	117	383	315	32
1958	2,953	1,793	114	257	727	607	88	1,161	57	166	482	413	42
1959	2,336	1,320	115	223	494	419	67	1,016	62	140	405	367	41
1960	2,560	1,476	114	251	552	489	70	1,083	75	167	420	385	36
1961	2,813	1,625	127	305	598	527	66	1,188	65	178	460	443	40
1962	2,336	1,308	113	243	476	422	55	1,029	65	171	386	372	34
1963	2,288	1,263	106	255	436	407	59	1,025	65	183	384	355	38
1964	2,137	1,154	106	235	398	368	49	982	60	177	350	359	30
1965	1,928	1,005	108	226	322	310	40	923	55	205	308	325	37
1966	1,714	896	108	195	277	273	43	818	65	164	286	279	27
1966 [4]	1,664	863	75	195	277	273	43	801	47	164	286	279	23
1967	1,913	987	81	214	331	310	51	925	52	199	312	331	33
1968	1,715	830	90	194	250	250	47	886	55	201	286	314	30
1969	1,810	888	98	210	284	252	45	921	64	212	311	308	27

[1] See footnote 1, table A–23.

[2] Data refer to persons 14 to 17 years for the period 1957–66, and persons 16 and 17 years beginning 1966.

[3] See footnote 3, table A–22.

[4] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

Table A–25. Nonagricultural Workers on Part Time for Economic Reasons, by Usual Full-Time or Part-Time Status and Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–69

[Persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward; numbers in thousands]

Item	1969	1968	1967	1966 [1]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
	Usually work full time [2]													
Total: Number	955	895	1,060	871	873	897	986	1,069	1,049	1,297	1,243	1,032	1,638	1,183
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE														
Male	56.1	55.4	59.8	60.9	60.9	60.2	61.0	63.0	64.7	66.1	68.0	65.8	68.7	65.0
Under 18 years	2.3	2.5	1.8	1.8	2.1	1.6	1.6	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.3	.9	1.3
18 to 24 years [3]	12.6	12.5	12.1	13.6	13.5	13.2	11.8	11.6	9.7	10.5	10.6	10.0	8.1	8.9
25 to 44 years	22.3	20.3	23.6	23.3	23.2	24.1	26.1	26.7	28.1	29.0	30.1	31.2	32.2	30.2
45 to 64 years	17.2	18.2	20.1	20.4	20.4	20.2	19.9	21.6	22.9	23.9	24.5	21.4	25.0	22.4
65 years and over	1.8	1.9	2.1	1.7	1.7	1.2	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.6	2.2
Female	43.9	44.6	40.2	39.1	39.1	39.8	39.0	37.0	35.3	33.9	32.0	34.2	31.3	35.0
Under 18 years	1.3	.9	.7	1.0	1.1	1.0	.6	.8	.9	.5	.9	.8	.5	1.0
18 to 24 years [3]	9.9	9.9	8.6	8.4	8.4	8.7	6.9	7.0	6.1	4.7	4.8	5.1	4.3	4.4
25 to 44 years	17.4	17.2	15.6	16.3	16.3	15.5	16.2	16.1	15.6	15.1	14.4	16.6	14.8	16.9
45 to 64 years	14.6	15.4	14.3	12.5	12.5	13.9	14.6	12.2	11.7	12.9	11.3	11.1	11.0	11.9
65 years and over	.7	1.2	1.0	.9	.9	.7	.7	.8	1.0	.7	.6	.7	.7	.8
COLOR AND SEX														
White	83.4	81.1	81.1	81.6	81.6	81.7	82.2	83.6	84.1	84.8	83.2	82.3	84.4	82.7
Male	46.1	44.4	47.7	49.1	49.1	48.7	49.8	52.0	54.1	56.0	56.3	54.1	58.1	53.9
Female	37.2	36.8	33.4	32.5	32.4	33.0	32.4	31.7	30.0	28.8	26.9	28.2	26.3	28.8
Negro and other races	16.6	18.9	18.9	18.4	18.4	18.3	17.8	16.4	15.9	15.2	16.8	17.7	15.6	17.3
Male	9.9	10.9	12.1	11.8	11.9	11.5	11.2	11.0	10.7	10.2	11.7	11.6	10.6	11.2
Female	6.7	7.9	6.8	6.5	6.5	6.8	6.6	5.3	5.2	5.0	5.2	6.0	5.0	6.1
SEX AND MARITAL STATUS														
Male:														
Single	14.0	13.9	12.9	14.1	14.2	14.4	13.0	13.0	11.2	11.4	11.5	11.8	9.7	11.4
Married, wife present	37.2	37.4	42.1	42.0	42.0	41.1	44.2	45.3	48.8	50.0	51.1	49.4	54.7	49.6
Widowed, divorced, separated	4.8	4.0	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.7	3.9	4.7	4.8	4.6	5.3	4.6	4.4	4.1
Female:														
Single	7.8	7.9	6.9	6.5	6.5	6.7	6.1	6.3	6.0	5.3	5.5	5.5	4.9	5.8
Married, husband present	27.3	27.9	24.6	23.7	23.7	23.5	24.7	23.3	20.8	20.6	19.3	20.3	19.1	20.4
Widowed, divorced, separated	8.9	8.8	8.7	8.8	8.8	9.6	8.1	7.5	8.5	8.0	7.2	8.3	7.2	8.7
INDUSTRY GROUP														
Wage and salary workers	89.0	90.0	89.2	89.2	89.2	88.7	89.1	88.2	89.7	89.2	90.7	90.6	91.7	91.1
Construction	12.9	12.4	13.8	15.5	15.5	14.6	15.7	15.5	15.4	14.6	14.3	14.8	10.4	12.8
Manufacturing	37.8	38.6	40.8	35.6	35.6	37.2	37.6	39.1	39.3	44.9	46.7	40.8	53.1	50.0
Durable goods	14.8	14.6	19.1	13.8	13.8	14.3	13.4	15.6	16.2	20.0	23.5	18.3	29.5	22.7
Nondurable goods	23.0	24.0	21.7	21.8	21.9	23.0	24.2	23.5	23.1	24.8	23.2	22.5	23.6	27.3
Transportation and public utilities	6.0	5.6	5.9	5.3	5.3	6.2	5.5	5.7	5.8	4.9	5.1	6.3	5.1	5.7
Wholesale and retail trade	13.3	14.1	12.2	14.0	14.1	12.9	11.4	12.1	11.9	9.7	9.0	12.2	8.9	9.1
Finance and service	16.5	16.7	13.9	16.3	16.3	15.9	16.0	13.3	13.9	11.6	11.5	12.8	10.3	9.8
Other industries [4]	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4	1.8	2.8	2.5	3.3	3.5	4.1	3.8	3.9	3.6
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	11.0	10.0	10.8	10.8	10.8	11.3	10.9	11.8	10.3	10.8	9.3	9.4	8.3	8.9

Footnotes at end of table.

Table A–25. Nonagricultural Workers on Part Time for Economic Reasons, by Usual Full-Time or Part-Time Status and Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–69—Continued

Item	1969	1968	1967	1966 [1]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
	Usually work part time [5]													
Total: Number	855	820	853	793	841	1,031	1,151	1,219	1,287	1,516	1,317	1,304	1,315	986
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE														
Male	41.2	40.8	41.4	41.9	43.2	45.2	48.1	48.4	48.9	50.7	47.9	49.2	50.8	50.1
Under 18 years	8.9	8.3	7.3	7.4	10.7	9.1	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.5	7.6	7.8	7.6	8.5
18 to 24 years [3]	10.5	10.0	10.0	9.7	9.1	10.5	10.3	10.8	10.9	11.2	9.0	9.2	9.5	7.7
25 to 44 years	8.3	8.3	9.4	9.3	8.8	10.3	12.2	12.3	13.4	14.7	13.5	13.2	15.2	13.3
45 to 64 years	10.3	10.6	11.4	11.9	11.3	12.5	14.9	14.4	14.1	14.4	14.1	15.2	15.1	15.5
65 years and over	3.3	3.7	3.3	3.5	3.3	2.8	2.9	3.3	2.7	3.0	3.7	3.7	3.4	5.1
Female	58.8	59.2	58.6	58.1	56.8	54.8	51.9	51.6	51.1	49.3	52.1	50.8	49.2	49.9
Under 18 years	6.1	5.7	5.2	4.8	6.5	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.3	3.9	4.9	4.1	3.7	4.7
18 to 24 years [3]	13.7	13.6	12.7	11.4	10.8	12.3	9.5	8.9	8.3	7.7	8.1	6.7	7.2	6.6
25 to 44 years	16.9	16.1	17.1	18.1	17.1	16.4	16.5	17.4	17.2	17.4	18.3	18.0	18.2	18.6
45 to 64 years	19.7	21.4	21.0	21.4	20.2	19.4	18.7	18.4	19.3	18.2	18.5	19.4	17.7	17.7
65 years and over	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.4	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.6	2.4	2.3
COLOR AND SEX														
White	73.1	71.1	67.8	66.3	67.4	65.6	65.3	66.2	65.2	68.3	67.5	66.4	68.4	66.8
Male	31.5	30.7	29.9	30.2	31.7	32.3	33.0	34.4	34.3	37.4	35.4	35.4	37.7	37.0
Female	41.6	40.4	37.9	36.1	35.7	33.3	32.3	31.8	30.9	30.9	32.1	31.0	30.7	29.8
Negro and other races	26.9	28.9	32.2	33.7	32.6	34.4	34.7	33.8	34.8	31.7	32.5	33.6	31.6	33.2
Male	9.8	10.0	11.6	11.7	11.4	12.8	15.0	14.0	14.5	13.3	12.5	13.7	13.0	13.1
Female	17.1	18.9	20.6	22.0	21.2	21.6	19.7	19.9	20.3	18.5	20.0	19.9	18.6	20.1
SEX AND MARITAL STATUS														
Male:														
Single	21.8	20.7	19.4	20.2	22.6	21.6	21.7	20.7	21.1	20.8	19.5	20.3	19.8	19.7
Married, wife present	15.7	15.6	17.9	17.1	16.2	18.5	20.3	22.0	22.4	24.7	23.5	23.9	26.6	25.2
Widowed, divorced, separated	3.9	4.5	4.2	4.7	4.4	4.9	6.0	5.7	5.4	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.4	5.2
Female:														
Single	17.3	16.8	16.1	14.4	15.6	15.6	13.8	12.9	12.7	11.9	13.0	11.4	10.8	11.9
Married, husband present	26.5	26.7	26.6	25.1	23.7	23.5	22.1	22.9	23.0	22.6	22.9	22.9	23.5	23.1
Widowed, divorced, separated	14.9	15.7	15.8	18.6	17.6	15.8	16.1	15.8	15.4	14.8	16.2	16.7	15.0	15.0
INDUSTRY GROUP														
Wage and salary workers	90.8	92.3	90.9	91.9	92.2	91.9	91.5	91.2	91.1	91.3	92.1	92.6	92.5	92.3
Construction	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.2	6.1	7.1	8.3	8.0	7.7	7.7	7.4	8.6	7.9	7.6
Manufacturing	8.5	10.1	10.6	7.8	7.6	8.9	9.9	11.2	11.0	13.5	12.9	11.3	15.8	14.6
Durable goods	2.5	3.2	3.5	2.5	2.5	3.1	3.4	4.1	4.7	5.3	4.8	4.3	6.8	6.7
Nondurable goods	6.1	7.0	7.0	5.3	5.1	5.8	6.5	7.1	6.3	8.1	8.1	7.0	9.0	7.9
Transportation and public utilities	3.4	3.2	3.5	4.5	4.4	3.6	4.8	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.5
Wholesale and retail trade	26.2	25.2	23.8	25.2	25.0	24.2	22.5	22.1	22.3	21.1	21.9	21.1	20.0	20.9
Finance and service	44.5	45.7	44.7	46.0	47.0	46.5	44.1	44.1	43.2	41.8	42.9	44.3	41.1	41.6
Other industries [4]	2.6	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.1	1.6	1.9	1.7	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.1
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	9.2	7.7	9.1	8.1	7.8	8.1	8.5	8.8	8.9	8.7	7.9	7.4	7.5	7.7

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[1] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967; prior to this, the item "under 18 years" referred to persons 14 to 17 years.

[2] Mainly persons who worked less than 35 hours during the survey week because of slack work, job changing during the week, material shortages, etc.

[3] See footnote 3, table A–22.

[4] See footnote 4, table A–22.

[5] Mainly persons who could find only part-time work.

Table B–1. Employment Status of the Population,[1] by Marital Status and Sex, 1947–69

[Numbers in thousands]

Marital status and date	Male						Female					
	Population	Labor force					Population	Labor force				
		Total		Employed	Unemployed			Total		Employed	Unemployed	
		Number	Percent of population		Number	Percent of labor force		Number	Percent of population		Number	Percent of labor force
SINGLE												
April 1947	14,760	9,375	63.5	8,500	849	9.1	12,078	6,181	51.2	5,991	190	3.1
April 1948	14,734	9,440	64.1	8,699	(2)	------	11,623	5,943	51.1	5,697	246	4.1
April 1949	13,952	8,957	64.2	8,048	863	9.6	11,174	5,682	50.9	5,395	287	5.1
March 1950	14,212	8,898	62.6	7,638	1,188	13.4	11,126	5,621	50.5	5,272	349	6.2
April 1951	12,984	8,036	61.9	7,550	427	5.3	10,946	5,430	49.6	5,228	202	3.7
April 1952	12,868	7,836	60.9	7,254	444	5.7	11,068	5,532	50.0	5,360	168	3.0
April 1953	13,000	7,825	60.2	7,347	390	5.0	10,774	5,223	48.5	5,089	130	2.5
April 1954	13,004	7,924	60.9	7,099	697	8.8	11,043	5,412	49.0	5,095	317	5.9
April 1955	13,522	8,276	61.2	7,495	653	7.9	10,962	5,087	46.4	4,865	222	4.4
March 1956	13,516	8,086	59.8	7,400	625	7.7	11,126	5,167	46,4	4,919	248	4.8
March 1957 [3]	13,754	7,958	57.9	7,166	716	9.0	11,487	5,378	46.8	5,139	239	4.4
March 1958	14,331	8,174	57.0	6,959	1,122	13.7	11,822	5,365	45.4	5,078	287	5.3
March 1959	14,768	8,416	57.0	7,263	1,083	12.9	11,884	5,162	43.4	4,832	330	6.4
March 1960	15,274	8,473	55.5	7,327	1,067	12.6	12,252	5,401	44.1	5,079	322	6.0
March 1961	15,886	8,837	55.6	7,533	1,246	14.1	12,764	5,663	44.4	5,235	428	7.6
March 1962	15,708	8,121	51.7	7,134	922	11.4	13,134	5,481	41.7	5,096	385	7.0
March 1963	16,361	8,267	50.5	7,059	1,124	13.6	13,692	5,614	41.0	5,218	396	7.1
March 1964	16,968	8,617	50.8	7,428	1,085	12.6	14,132	5,781	40.9	5,366	415	7.2
March 1965	17,338	8,719	50.3	7,765	898	10.3	14,607	5,912	40.5	5,491	421	7.1
March 1966	17,684	8,781	49.7	7,914	799	9.1	14,981	6,106	40.8	5,729	377	6.2
March 1967	17,754	9,001	50.7	8,151	706	7.8	15,311	6,323	41.3	5,958	365	5.8
March 1967 [4]	13,987	8,350	59.7	7,553	654	7.8	11,664	5,915	50.7	5,566	349	5.9
March 1968	14.596	8,695	59.6	7,816	707	8.1	12,381	6,357	51.3	5,944	413	6.5
March 1969	14,890	8,797	59.1	8,000	675	7.7	12,689	6,501	51.2	6,093	408	6.3
MARRIED, SPOUSE PRESENT												
April 1947	33,389	30,927	92.6	29,865	837	2.7	33,458	6,676	20.0	6,502	174	2.6
April 1948	34,289	31,713	92.5	30,563	(2)	------	34,289	7,553	22.0	7,369	184	2.4
April 1949	35,323	32,559	92.2	31,101	1,115	3.4	35,323	7,959	22.5	7,637	322	4.0
March 1950	35,925	32,912	91.6	30,938	1,503	4.6	35,925	8,550	23.8	8,038	512	6.0
April 1951	35,998	32,998	91.7	31,968	480	1.5	35.998	9,086	25.2	8,750	336	3.7
April 1952	36,510	33,482	91.7	32,222	464	1.4	36,510	9,222	25.3	8,946	266	2.9
April 1953	37,106	33,950	91.5	32,540	564	1.7	37,106	9,763	26.3	9,525	236	2.4
April 1954	37,346	34,153	91.5	32,139	1,328	3.9	37,346	9,923	26.6	9,388	535	5.4
April 1955	37,570	34,064	90.7	32,207	1,171	3.4	37,570	10,423	27,7	10,021	402	3.9
March 1956	38,306	34,855	91.0	33,046	1,016	2.9	38,306	11,126	29.0	10,676	450	4.0
March 1957 [3]	38,940	35,280	90.6	33,536	1,024	2.9	38,940	11,529	29.6	11,036	493	4.3
March 1958	39,182	35,327	90.2	32,283	2,267	6.4	39,182	11,826	30.2	10,993	833	7.0
March 1959	39,529	35,437	89.6	32,928	1,583	4.5	39,529	12,205	30.9	11,516	689	5.6
March 1960	40,205	35,757	88.9	33,179	1,564	4.4	40,205	12,253	30.5	11,587	666	5.4
March 1961	40,524	36,201	89.3	33,080	2,137	5.9	40,524	13,266	32.7	12,337	929	7.0
March 1962	41,218	36,396	88.3	33,883	1,605	4.4	41,218	13,485	32.7	12,716	769	5.7
March 1963	41,705	36,740	88.1	34,305	1,567	4.3	41,705	14,061	33.7	13,303	758	5.4
March 1964	42,045	36,898	87.8	34,667	1,310	3.6	42,045	14,461	34.4	13,626	835	5.8
March 1965	42,367	37,140	87.7	35,185	1,088	2.9	42,367	14,708	34.7	13,959	749	5.1
March 1966	42,826	37,346	87.2	35,685	888	2.4	42,826	15,178	35.4	14,623	555	3.7
March 1967	43,225	37,596	87.0	35,964	792	2.1	43,225	15,908	36.8	15,189	719	4.5
March 1967 [4]	43,225	37,588	87.0	35,963	790	2.1	43,225	15,908	36.8	15,189	719	4.5
March 1968	43,947	38,225	87.0	36,552	787	2.1	43,947	16,821	38.3	16,199	622	3.7
March 1969	44,440	38,623	86.9	37,065	662	1.7	44,440	17,595	39.6	16,947	648	3.7
WIDOWED, DIVORCED, SEPARATED												
April 1947	4,201	2,760	65.7	2,546	211	7.6	9,270	3,466	37.4	3,309	157	4.5
April 1948	4,204	2,689	64.0	2,539	(2)	------	9,452	3,659	38.7	3,463	196	5.4
April 1949	4,174	2,545	61.0	2,314	227	8.9	9,505	3,526	37.1	3,324	202	5.7
March 1950	4,149	2,616	63.1	2,301	311	11.9	9,584	3,624	37.8	3,364	260	7.2
April 1951	4,438	2,754	62.1	2,616	121	4.4	10,410	4,086	39.2	3,910	176	4.3
April 1952	4,186	2,602	62.2	2,422	140	5.4	10,456	4,058	38.8	3,928	130	3.2
April 1953	4,678	3,060	65.4	2,870	150	4.9	11,060	4,319	39.0	4,205	112	2.6
April 1954	4,947	3,081	62.3	2,755	318	10.3	11,153	4,391	39.4	4,120	269	6.1
April 1955	4,902	2,976	60.7	2,699	269	9.0	11,718	4,643	39.6	4,398	245	5.3
March 1956	4,922	3,001	61.0	2,737	246	8.2	11,543	4,549	39.4	4,300	249	5.5
March 1957 [3]	4,776	2,795	58.5	2,571	211	7.5	11,436	4,617	40.4	4,417	200	4.3
March 1958	4,949	2,903	58.7	2,524	354	12.2	11,780	4,810	40.8	4,474	336	7.0
March 1959	4,961	2,967	59.8	2,651	305	10.3	12,148	5,009	41.2	4,637	372	7.4
March 1960	4,794	2,845	59.3	2,542	279	9.8	12,150	4,861	40.0	4,553	308	6.3
March 1961	4,828	2,829	58.6	2,490	326	11.5	12,559	5,270	42.0	4,841	429	8.1
March 1962	5,203	2,989	57.4	2,629	355	11.9	12,814	5,012	39.1	4,681	331	6.6
March 1963	5,174	2,932	56.7	2,598	322	11.0	12,995	5,000	38.5	4,665	335	6.7
March 1964	5,205	2,933	56.3	2,635	286	9.8	13,326	5,157	38.7	4,794	363	7.0
March 1965	5,438	3,032	55.8	2,724	297	9.8	13,717	5,332	38.9	5,044	288	5.4
March 1966	5,278	2,959	56.1	2,794	160	5.4	14,021	5,536	39.5	5,278	258	4.7
March 1967	5,525	3,027	54.8	2,819	190	6.3	14,550	5,724	39.3	5,473	251	4.4
March 1967 [4]	5,512	3,025	54.9	2,817	190	6.3	14,551	5,722	39.4	5,471	251	4.4
March 1968	5,278	2,816	53.4	2,682	124	4.4	14,351	5,600	39.0	5,325	275	4.9
March 1969	5,501	2,977	54.1	2,842	124	4.2	14,791	5,802	39.2	5,573	229	3.9

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[1] Prior to the raising of the lower age limit in 1967, data included all persons 14 years of age and over in the civilian population (including institutional); beginning 1967, the lower age limit was raised to include only persons 16 years and over. Male members of the Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post are included in the male population and labor force figures.

[2] Not available.

[3] Beginning 1957, data are not strictly comparable with earlier data because of changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment. Two groups averaging about 250,000 workers who were formerly classified as employed (with a job but not at work)—those on temporary layoff and those waiting to start new wage and salary jobs within 30 days—were assigned to different classifications, mostly to the unemployed. The changes mainly affected the total for nonagricultural wage and salary workers, which was reduced by about 0.5 percent; there was little impact on any individual category in the group.

[4] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

Table B–2. Labor Force Participation Rates,[1] by Marital Status, Sex, and Age, 1947–69

Marital status and date	Male									Female								
	Total [2]	Under 20 years [2]	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 64 years			65 years and over	Total [2]	Under 20 years [2]	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 64 years			65 years and over
						Total	45 to 54	55 to 64							Total	45 to 54	55 to 64	
SINGLE																		
April 1947	63.5	(3)	(3)	85.0	85.5	79.1	(3)	(3)	40.2	51.2	(3)	(3)	78.2	79.4	66.3	(3)	(3)	22.7
April 1948	64.1	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	51.1	29.3	78.8	81.8	78.1	61.6	(3)	(3)	23.2
April 1949	64.2	45.3	77.1	86.6	85.1	75.1	(3)	(3)	42.1	50.9	28.8	75.8	81.0	80.4	66.8	(3)	(3)	24.3
March 1950	62.6	42.1	78.7	84.1	83.6	74.1	(3)	(3)	41.0	50.5	26.3	74.9	84.6	83.6	70.6	(3)	(3)	23.8
April 1951	61.9	42.7	77.1	84.3	83.0	78.5	(3)	(3)	36.8	49.6	28.4	75.6	82.0	81.7	65.0	(3)	(3)	18.9
April 1952	60.9	40.7	79.2	86.8	83.7	76.6	85.0	66.2	28.2	50.0	28.0	75.9	83.0	78.4	71.9	78.5	63.1	16.4
April 1953	60.2	41.7	75.5	86.1	81.0	74.8	78.1	70.8	30.2	48.5	27.4	76.2	81.3	77.3	68.3	72.9	62.7	23.2
April 1954	60.9	40.8	78.6	89.2	83.2	81.8	84.1	78.6	28.9	49.0	27.5	77.2	88.7	77.0	70.8	76.9	61.1	17.3
April 1955	61.2	39.4	76.5	89.1	82.2	86.7	88.8	83.6	31.6	46.4	24.6	69.6	80.9	81.2	74.8	79.4	69.1	26.0
March 1956	59.8	39.2	75.9	89.7	85.4	76.3	82.0	67.9	25.9	46.4	24.7	72.2	85.5	78.5	70.1	74.7	63.8	24.3
March 1957	57.9	38.9	73.2	86.5	82.9	77.0	83.1	68.9	26.8	46.8	26.8	74.6	79.5	81.9	72.9	78.0	66.7	24.5
March 1958	57.0	36.0	73.9	87.5	82.8	78.1	83.7	72.1	28.9	45.4	24.7	72.9	80.1	79.1	72.4	77.3	66.1	26.7
March 1959	57.0	36.5	75.3	88.2	85.1	75.3	79.7	69.6	25.3	43.4	24.0	72.7	76.4	81.8	71.1	74.4	66.4	20.3
March 1960	55.5	34.4	76.6	85.3	85.3	74.4	77.5	69.7	24.3	44.1	25.3	73.4	79.9	79.7	75.1	80.6	67.0	21.6
March 1961	55.6	34.3	76.3	87.5	88.2	77.5	82.6	69.0	23.0	44.4	26.1	76.5	79.9	77.5	76.0	81.8	68.6	20.8
March 1962	51.7	32.4	73.9	87.0	80.3	73.4	76.0	70.0	24.8	41.7	25.0	70.9	79.8	77.3	71.0	74.1	67.2	17.3
March 1963	50.5	31.7	74.1	85.5	81.0	72.6	75.7	69.0	18.2	41.0	23.6	71.9	81.4	82.5	73.7	79.2	67.6	16.9
March 1964	50.8	33.0	70.6	83.6	82.8	73.9	81.4	64.5	20.3	40.9	23.5	74.0	87.2	83.0	71.3	75.0	67.0	19.2
March 1965	50.3	32.0	72.3	85.3	84.6	72.0	78.5	65.1	18.1	40.5	23.6	72.3	83.4	77.0	71.8	75.7	68.1	21.3
March 1966	49.7	34.5	69.0	85.1	84.8	67.6	71.6	63.0	15.7	40.8	25.5	72.6	80.9	75.4	69.7	73.6	65.6	18.0
March 1967	50.7	35.8	69.8	85.7	84.6	69.3	76.6	61.8	16.2	41.3	27.3	70.3	80.9	74.5	67.8	72.2	63.2	17.3
March 1967 [2]	59.7	46.6	69.8	85.7	84.6	69.3	76.6	61.8	16.2	50.7	37.2	70.3	80.9	74.5	67.8	72.2	63.2	17.3
March 1968	59.6	46.7	67.7	85.2	80.8	67.9	74.8	57.3	15.4	51.3	37.4	68.7	79.8	77.2	70.0	74.9	64.8	18.2
March 1969	59.1	46.9	67.5	84.0	79.2	69.2	76.6	57.8	18.7	51.2	37.1	69.4	80.9	72.3	67.9	72.8	62.8	18.4
MARRIED, SPOUSE PRESENT																		
April 1947	92.6	(3)	(3)	97.7	98.8	95.0	(3)	(3)	54.5	20.0	(3)	(3)	19.3	25.8	18.4	(3)	(3)	4.1
April 1948	92.5	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	22.0	21.2	24.9	22.2	27.3	19.4	(3)	(3)	6.1
April 1949	92.2	(3)	94.9	97.7	98.7	94.3	(3)	(3)	51.9	22.5	18.6	24.5	22.7	28.5	20.6	(3)	(3)	5.2
March 1950	91.6	92.6	94.5	97.0	98.8	92.8	(3)	(3)	53.4	23.8	24.0	28.5	23.8	28.5	21.8	(3)	(2)	6.4
April 1951	91.7	96.7	95.6	98.2	98.4	93.5	(3)	(3)	50.9	25.2	17.6	29.1	25.6	30.5	23.7	(3)	(3)	6.5
April 1952	91.7	97.0	97.9	99.0	98.8	93.8	97.1	89.3	47.8	25.3	21.9	25.8	25.4	31.7	24.1	29.0	16.9	5.9
April 1953	91.5	100.0	96.1	98.7	98.8	94.9	97.6	91.0	46.2	26.3	20.8	28.2	25.2	33.6	25.7	30.8	17.6	6.0
April 1954	91.5	91.6	98.0	98.9	99.0	94.9	97.8	90.9	47.1	26.6	20.9	25.6	26.3	33.1	26.9	31.0	20.7	5.4
April 1955	90.7	98.8	94.5	98.8	98.8	93.8	97.4	88.8	44.2	27.7	19.8	29.4	26.0	33.7	29.0	33.9	21.3	7.5
March 1956	91.0	95.5	95.5	98.7	99.2	94.6	97.8	90.1	44.8	29.0	27.6	30.9	26.3	34.3	31.5	36.5	23.5	7.8
March 1957	90.6	97.9	95.9	98.7	98.7	94.4	97.6	90.1	42.4	29.6	24.0	30.2	27.1	35.7	32.2	37.2	24.6	6.3
March 1958	90.2	95.5	96.6	98.7	98.7	94.0	97.2	89.4	40.6	30.2	25.9	30.7	27.4	36.7	32.6	38.2	23.8	6.7
March 1959	89.6	95.7	95.6	98.6	98.9	94.0	97.3	89.3	38.2	30.9	28.1	30.6	28.5	36.9	33.9	40.3	24.0	6.4
March 1960	88.9	96.0	97.5	98.6	98.4	93.0	96.6	87.9	37.1	30.5	25.3	30.0	27.7	36.2	34.2	40.5	24.3	5.9
March 1961	89.3	98.3	97.4	99.0	98.6	93.7	97.0	89.1	37.6	32.7	27.8	32.4	29.2	38.4	37.3	42.4	29.3	7.3
March 1962	88.3	95.2	96.0	98.7	98.6	93.6	97.1	88.8	35.0	32.7	27.5	31.6	29.4	39.0	37.2	42.5	29.0	7.6
March 1963	88.1	97.8	96.5	98.6	98.9	93.6	97.3	88.4	32.3	33.7	29.8	33.2	30.0	39.8	38.9	44.4	30.4	6.4
March 1964	87.8	95.3	96.7	98.5	98.4	93.2	97.4	87.4	31.0	34.4	31.1	36.6	30.6	39.4	39.5	44.8	31.3	7.6
March 1965	87.7	94.3	96.6	98.5	98.2	92.8	96.8	87.1	31.1	34.7	27.0	35.6	32.1	40.6	39.0	44.0	31.4	7.6
March 1966	87.2	91.5	96.9	98.6	98.1	92.5	96.6	86.7	29.8	35.4	34.3	38.1	32.5	41.3	39.5	44.9	31.3	6.8
March 1967	87.0	93.9	96.6	98.5	98.2	92.1	96.6	86.0	28.8	36.8	30.6	41.1	35.0	42.7	40.4	44.9	33.5	6.6
March 1967 [2]	87.0	93.8	96.6	98.5	98.2	92.1	96.6	86.0	28.8	36.8	31.5	41.1	35.0	42.7	40.4	44.9	33.5	6.6
March 1968	86.9	94.7	95.3	98.5	98.4	92.2	96.3	86.8	29.6	38.3	36.3	42.7	36.6	43.9	42.2	46.9	35.1	6.5
March 1969	86.9	95.6	95.0	98.3	98.2	91.6	95.9	86.0	30.9	39.6	35.4	47.9	36.9	45.4	43.1	48.2	35.4	7.6
WIDOWED, DIVORCED, SEPARATED																		
April 1947	65.7	(3)	(3)	85.2	89.6	78.8	(3)	(3)	32.8	37.4	(3)	(3)	63.8	67.6	45.4	(3)	(3)	7.6
April 1948	64.0	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	38.7	41.0	57.9	64.7	67.9	48.9	(3)	(3)	8.5
April 1949	60.9	(4)	69.9	78.0	87.1	74.9	(3)	(3)	32.2	37.1	39.7	47.6	59.2	68.4	46.7	(3)	(3)	8.6
March 1950	63.0	(4)	75.0	83.8	83.4	83.1	(3)	(3)	30.2	37.8	(3)	45.5	62.3	65.4	50.2	(3)	(3)	8.8
April 1951	62.1	(4)	81.7	81.8	87.4	77.8	(3)	(3)	27.6	39.3	39.1	45.3	58.7	69.0	51.5	(3)	(3)	9.2
April 1952	62.2	(4)	78.2	81.1	88.2	79.0	79.1	78.9	27.3	38.8	41.0	59.0	63.0	68.7	49.6	61.5	39.5	8.2
April 1953	65.4	(4)	(4)	82.9	92.1	84.2	89.6	79.9	29.2	39.1	47.8	52.9	61.2	67.2	52.4	64.7	42.6	9.1
April 1954	62.3	(4)	82.2	76.3	90.6	78.8	83.7	74.4	22.7	39.4	48.6	47.6	62.7	69.3	52.0	61.8	44.6	9.8
April 1955	60.7	(4)	(4)	80.9	83.5	78.6	85.6	72.7	26.4	39.6	37.3	55.1	60.5	64.6	53.3	64.1	45.1	10.7
March 1956	61.0	(4)	82.8	79.7	86.5	78.0	80.5	75.3	27.2	39.4	35.3	49.5	60.6	66.8	55.8	63.0	50.6	10.2
March 1957	58.5	(4)	85.8	81.2	86.8	76.3	82.8	69.7	24.5	40.4	35.5	53.1	62.1	69.4	56.0	66.4	47.8	12.3
March 1958	58.7	(4)	77.2	79.0	87.1	77.3	80.5	74.5	23.0	40.8	31.8	59.6	62.6	69.9	58.3	68.2	50.9	11.2
March 1959	59.8	(4)	69.2	89.0	87.1	77.2	82.8	72.4	20.8	41.2	34.5	57.6	61.4	65.7	60.3	68.6	53.9	11.0
March 1960	59.3	(4)	88.6	82.3	84.1	78.1	84.3	72.6	18.2	40.0	37.3	54.6	55.5	67.4	58.3	68.2	50.7	11.0
March 1961	58.6	(4)	81.0	81.3	81.6	78.2	83.1	73.1	21.2	42.0	42.3	58.5	61.5	72.2	59.7	69.9	51.5	12.0
March 1962	57.4	(4)	70.7	80.8	85.0	77.4	82.6	71.7	16.7	39.1	34.0	54.7	57.5	63.3	60.2	71.0	52.0	11.2
March 1963	56.7	(4)	71.8	79.0	82.4	77.2	83.4	70.6	16.3	38.5	36.6	58.1	56.5	66.8	59.1	67.8	52.5	9.8
March 1964	56.3	(4)	79.7	82.9	81.5	77.3	82.6	71.8	17.1	38.7	28.7	50.3	60.3	63.7	60.4	70.2	53.1	10.3
March 1965	55.8	(4)	65.0	79.0	82.1	77.2	81.6	72.6	18.8	38.9	35.2	58.6	62.8	65.0	59.8	67.9	53.3	10.0
March 1966	56.1	(4)	85.6	82.4	84.6	75.3	80.5	70.9	14.8	39.5	45.0	55.3	58.5	67.2	61.3	69.0	55.4	10.7
March 1967	54.8	(5)	78.4	81.0	82.6	74.6	81.4	68.0	15.2	39.3	38.7	60.9	62.4	68.9	60.2	69.1	53.5	9.6
March 1967 [2]	54.9	(5)	78.4	81.0	82.6	74.6	81.4	68.0	15.2	39.4	41.1	60.9	62.4	68.9	60.2	69.1	53.5	9.6
March 1968	53.6	(5)	68.4	81.9	85.4	72.4	80.7	64.0	14.0	39.0	51.1	62.0	61.1	68.8	60.4	69.2	54.1	9.4
March 1969	54.1	(5)	72.9	80.7	82.5	73.6	85.1	60.1	14.9	39.2	51.8	62.9	63.5	66.4	60.8	68.5	55.0	10.2

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[1] Percent of population in the labor force. See footnote 1, table B–1.

[2] Prior to the raising of the lower age limit in 1967, the total included persons 14 years and over and the column showing "under 20 years" included persons 14 to 19 years; in accordance with the change introduced in 1967, only persons 16 years and over are included.

[3] Not available.

[4] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

[5] Percent not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Table B–3. Employment Status of Head in Husband-Wife Families,[1] by Employment Status of Family Members, Selected Dates, 1955–69

Employment status of head and date	Total (thousands)	Percent distribution							
		Total	Family member in labor force						No family member in labor force
			Total	By relationship to head			By employment status		
				Wife only	Wife and other member	Other member only	At least one member employed [2]	All unemployed	
HEAD IN LABOR FORCE [3]									
April 1955 [4]	34,064	100.0	39.9	23.9	4.9	11.2	38.2	1.8	60.1
March 1958	34,412	100.0	41.9	26.0	5.4	10.5	38.8	3.0	58.1
March 1959	34,625	100.0	43.3	26.1	6.1	11.2	40.1	3.2	56.7
March 1960	35,041	100.0	43.0	25.8	6.2	11.1	40.1	2.9	57.0
March 1961	35,453	100.0	45.0	27.6	6.6	10.8	41.2	3.8	55.0
March 1962	35,713	100.0	45.0	28.1	6.5	10.4	42.0	3.0	55.0
March 1963	36,079	100.0	46.5	28.7	6.9	10.8	43.3	3.2	53.5
March 1964	36,286	100.0	47.6	28.8	7.6	11.1	44.3	3.3	52.4
March 1965	36,545	100.0	47.4	29.6	7.3	10.5	44.6	2.9	52.6
March 1966	36,763	100.0	48.7	29.8	8.2	10.7	46.2	2.4	51.3
March 1967	37,060	100.0	50.4	30.7	8.8	10.9	47.9	2.5	49.6
March 1968	37,668	100.0	50.7	32.6	8.3	9.8	48.5	2.1	49.3
March 1969	38,144	100.0	51.8	33.4	8.9	9.4	49.8	1.9	48.2
HEAD EMPLOYED [3]									
April 1955 [4]	32,893	100.0	39.6	23.6	4.8	11.2	38.0	1.6	60.4
March 1958	32,298	100.0	41.4	25.5	5.3	10.5	38.8	2.6	58.6
March 1959	33,149	100.0	43.1	25.8	6.0	11.3	40.1	2.9	56.9
March 1960	33,579	100.0	42.7	25.5	6.1	11.2	40.0	2.7	57.3
March 1961	33,428	100.0	44.6	27.3	6.6	10.8	41.2	3.5	55.4
March 1962	34,185	100.0	44.7	27.8	6.4	10.5	41.9	2.8	55.3
March 1963	34,595	100.0	46.2	28.6	6.9	10.8	43.2	3.0	53.8
March 1964	35,052	100.0	47.3	28.6	7.6	11.2	44.3	3.1	52.7
March 1965	35,512	100.0	47.2	29.4	7.3	10.5	44.5	2.7	52.8
March 1966	35,918	100.0	48.6	29.7	8.1	10.8	46.3	2.3	51.4
March 1967	36,305	100.0	50.3	30.5	8.8	10.9	47.9	2.4	49.7
March 1968	36,945	100.0	50.6	32.5	8.3	9.8	48.6	2.0	49.4
March 1969	37,523	100.0	51.8	33.4	8.9	9.5	49.9	1.9	48.2
HEAD UNEMPLOYED									
April 1955 [4]	1,171	100.0	48.8	31.3	6.6	10.8	42.4	6.4	51.2
March 1958	2,114	100.0	49.0	32.4	6.9	9.7	39.3	9.7	51.0
March 1959	1,477	100.0	49.0	32.6	7.1	9.3	40.8	8.2	51.0
March 1960	1,462	100.0	49.7	32.1	8.0	9.6	41.7	7.9	50.3
March 1961	2,025	100.0	51.4	34.1	6.5	10.8	41.5	9.9	48.6
March 1962	1,528	100.0	50.9	34.1	8.6	8.3	42.6	8.3	49.0
March 1963	1,484	100.0	53.2	32.3	9.0	11.9	45.7	7.5	46.8
March 1964	1,234	100.0	54.4	36.6	7.7	10.1	44.4	10.0	45.6
March 1965	1,033	100.0	54.6	36.6	7.8	10.3	47.5	7.2	45.4
March 1966	847	100.0	50.1	31.9	10.4	7.8	42.9	7.2	49.9
March 1967	755	100.0	56.3	36.7	9.1	10.5	48.2	8.1	43.7
March 1968	723	100.0	51.7	36.9	7.3	7.5	43.9	7.7	48.3
March 1969	621	100.0	51.7	36.2	8.3	7.2	45.4	6.2	48.3

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[1] The number of men in husband-wife families shown here is smaller than the number shown as married with spouse present in table B-1 because it excludes married couples living in households where a relative is the head.

[2] This category may also include a wife or other member who is unemployed.

[3] Includes members of the Armed Forces living off post or with their families, on post.

[4] Data for 1955 not strictly comparable with later years. See footnote 3, table B-1.

Table B–4. Labor Force Status and Labor Force Participation Rates [1] of Married Women, Husband Present, by Presence and Age of Children, 1948–69

Date	Total	No children under 18 years	Children 6 to 17 years only	Children under 6 years		
				Total	No children 6 to 17 years	Children 6 to 17 years
	Number in labor force (thousands)					
April 1948	7,553	4,400	1,927	1,226	594	632
April 1949	7,959	4,544	2,130	1,285	654	631
March 1950	8,550	4,946	2,205	1,399	748	651
April 1951	9,086	5,016	2,400	1,670	886	784
April 1952	9,222	5,042	2,492	1,688	916	772
April 1953	9,763	5,130	2,749	1,884	1,047	837
April 1954	9,923	5,096	3,019	1,808	883	925
April 1955	10,423	5,227	3,183	2,012	927	1,086
March 1956	11,126	5,694	3,384	2,048	971	1,077
March 1957	11,529	5,805	3,517	2,208	961	1,247
March 1958	11,826	5,713	3,714	2,399	1,122	1,277
March 1959	12,205	5,679	4,055	2,471	1,118	1,353
March 1960	12,253	5,692	4,087	2,474	1,123	1,351
March 1961	13,266	6,186	4,419	2,661	1,178	1,483
March 1962	13,485	6,156	4,445	2,884	1,282	1,602
March 1963	14,061	6,366	4,689	3,006	1,346	1,660
March 1964	14,461	6,545	4,866	3,050	1,408	1,642
March 1965	14,708	6,755	4,836	3,117	1,404	1,709
March 1966	15,178	7,043	4,949	3,186	1,431	1,755
March 1967	15,908	7,158	5,269	3,480	1,629	1,851
March 1968	16,821	7,564	5,693	3,564	1,641	1,923
March 1969	17,595	7,853	6,146	3,596	1,756	1,840
	Labor force participation rate					
April 1948	22.0	28.4	26.0	10.8	9.2	12.7
April 1949	22.5	28.7	27.3	11.0	10.0	12.2
March 1950	23.8	30.3	28.3	11.9	11.2	12.6
April 1951	25.2	31.0	30.3	14.0	13.6	14.6
April 1952	25.3	30.9	31.1	13.9	13.7	14.1
April 1953	26.3	31.2	32.2	15.5	15.8	15.2
April 1954	26.6	31.6	33.2	14.9	14.3	15.5
April 1955	27.7	32.7	34.7	16.2	15.1	17.3
March 1956	29.0	35.3	36.4	15.9	15.6	16.1
March 1957	29.6	35.6	36.6	17.0	15.9	17.9
March 1958	30.2	35.4	37.6	18.2	18.4	18.1
March 1959	30.9	35.2	39.8	18.7	18.3	19.0
March 1960	30.5	34.7	39.0	18.6	18.2	18.9
March 1961	32.7	37.3	41.7	20.0	19.6	20.3
March 1962	32.7	36.1	41.8	21.3	21.1	21.5
March 1963	33.7	37.4	41.5	22.5	22.4	22.5
March 1964	34.4	37.8	43.0	22.7	23.6	21.9
March 1965	34.7	38.3	42.7	23.3	23.8	22.8
March 1966	35.4	38.4	43.7	24.2	24.0	24.3
March 1967	36.8	38.9	45.0	26.5	26.9	26.2
March 1968	38.3	40.1	46.9	27.6	27.8	27.4
March 1969	39.6	41.0	48.6	28.5	29.3	27.8

[1] Percent of civilian population in the labor force.

Table B–5. Employed Married Women, Husband Present, by Occupation Group, 1947–69

Date	All occupation groups		Professional and technical workers	Farmers and farm managers	Managers, officials, and proprietors	Clerical workers	Sales workers	Craftsmen and foremen	Operatives	Private household workers	Service workers, exc. private household	Farm laborers and foremen	Nonfarm laborers
	Number (thousands)	Percent											
April 1947	6,502	100.0	7.9	1.9	6.5	21.2	8.7	1.1	25.6	8.4	11.2	7.1	0.5
April 1948	7,369	100.0	7.7	1.8	7.2	32.0		1.3	24.6	17.7		7.2	.3
April 1949	7,637	100.0	8.3	1.5	6.9	32.4		1.1	22.0	18.7		8.6	.5
March 1950	8,038	100.0	9.5	1.0	7.0	32.4		1.2	23.1	20.2		5.2	.4
April 1951	8,750	100.0	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
April 1952	8,946	100.0	9.7	.7	6.6	25.8	8.8	1.3	23.0	6.8	11.2	5.4	.7
April 1953	9,525	100.0	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
April 1954	9,388	100.0	11.2	.5	6.1	24.4	9.2	1.5	22.4	5.9	13.2	5.3	.4
April 1955	10,021	100.0	10.5	.7	4.6	25.4	9.4	1.3	21.8	6.3	12.8	6.6	.6
March 1956	10,676	100.0	10.4	.6	5.6	27.6	9.6	1.4	19.0	6.9	13.2	5.1	.5
March 1957 [2]	11,036	100.0	10.7	.4	6.1	28.4	8.4	1.2	19.1	7.4	13.0	4.6	.6
March 1958	10,995	100.0	12.1	.3	5.6	28.3	8.9	1.3	18.0	7.4	14.0	3.8	.5
March 1959	11,516	100.0	12.8	.4	5.9	27.7	8.7	1.1	17.9	6.3	14.9	3.9	.4
March 1960	11,587	100.0	13.0	.2	5.0	28.3	8.4	1.0	18.6	6.2	15.9	3.1	.3
March 1961	12,337	100.0	12.9	.5	5.3	29.3	9.2	1.1	16.7	6.3	14.7	3.5	.5
March 1962	12,716	100.0	14.2	.4	5.7	30.6	8.7	1.2	15.6	6.0	14.4	2.7	.5
March 1963	13,303	100.0	13.4	.4	5.2	30.3	8.4	1.3	16.4	5.8	15.6	2.7	.4
March 1964	13,626	100.0	13.3	.3	5.6	30.2	8.2	1.2	17.3	5.5	15.8	2.2	.4
March 1965	13,959	100.0	14.7	.2	4.7	30.2	8.1	1.3	17.5	5.1	15.5	2.3	.5
March 1966	14,623	100.0	14.0	.4	4.8	31.4	7.8	1.3	17.2	5.1	15.5	2.1	.5
March 1967	15,189	100.0	14.6	.2	4.7	32.1	7.9	1.2	17.6	4.3	15.2	1.9	.3
March 1968	16,199	100.0	15.1	.3	4.9	32.2	7.1	1.2	17.5	4.2	15.1	1.9	.4
March 1969	16,947	100.0	15.0	.2	4.6	33.3	7.2	1.2	16.6	3.6	16.0	1.9	.4

[1] Not available.

[2] Beginning 1957, data not strictly comparable with earlier years. See footnote 3, table B–1.

Table B–6. Labor Force Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–68

School enrollment and year	Both sexes, 14 to 24 years	Male						Female					
		Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years
			Total	14 and 15	16 and 17				Total	14 and 15	16 and 17		
	Population (thousands)												
ENROLLED													
1947	8,927	4,898	3,364	(1)	(1)	587	947	4,029	3,373	(1)	(1)	420	236
1948	9,061	5,015	3,436	(1)	(1)	682	898	4,046	3,388	(1)	(1)	452	206
1949	8,846	4,866	3,447	(1)	(1)	593	827	3,981	3,331	(1)	(1)	435	215
1950	9,189	4,982	3,568	(1)	(1)	680	733	4,207	3,420	(1)	(1)	519	268
1951	9,036	4,750	3,614	(1)	(1)	534	602	4,286	3,602	(1)	(1)	440	244
1952	9,406	5,000	3,758	(1)	(1)	612	630	4,406	3,682	(1)	(1)	450	274
1953	9,700	5,122	3,844	2,214	1,630	642	636	4,579	3,695	2,145	1,550	538	346
1954	10,052	5,410	4,002	2,232	1,770	730	677	4,642	3,782	2,145	1,637	538	322
1955	10,212	5,534	4,096	2,285	1,811	752	686	4,677	3,873	2,231	1,642	480	324
1956	11,013	5,915	4,276	2,482	1,794	809	830	5,098	4,138	2,404	1,734	598	362
1957[2]	11,812	6,323	4,646	2,729	1,917	780	897	5,489	4,421	2,599	1,822	629	439
1958	12,317	6,667	4,854	2,751	2,103	898	915	5,651	4,591	2,664	1,927	667	393
1959	12,719	6,849	5,039	2,716	2,323	918	892	5,870	4,796	2,603	2,193	683	391
1960	13,409	7,247	5,248	2,878	2,370	1,063	936	6,162	4,994	2,763	2,231	754	414
1961	14,582	7,863	5,705	3,394	2,311	1,170	988	6,719	5,458	3,227	2,231	782	479
1962	15,609	8,421	6,032	3,576	2,456	1,212	1,177	7,188	5,708	3,422	2,286	932	548
1963	16,592	8,947	6,402	3,466	2,936	1,180	1,365	7,645	6,115	3,347	2,768	881	649
1964	17,258	9,228	6,658	3,479	3,179	1,238	1,332	8,030	6,356	3,353	3,003	958	716
1965	18,323	9,861	6,613	3,546	3,067	1,689	1,559	8,462	6,420	3,434	2,986	1,241	801
1966	19,016	10,278	6,770	3,640	3,130	1,841	1,667	8,738	6,523	3,526	2,997	1,335	880
1967	19,663	10,471	6,973	3,738	3,235	1,636	1,862	9,192	6,663	3,635	3,028	1,390	1,139
1968	20,422	10,957	7,200	3,837	3,363	1,891	1,866	9,465	6,919	3,727	3,192	1,424	1,122
NOT ENROLLED													
1947	15,330	6,808	900	(1)	(1)	1,282	4,626	8,521	855	(1)	(1)	1,848	5,818
1948	14,906	6,606	759	(1)	(1)	1,306	4,542	8,299	760	(1)	(1)	1,770	5,770
1949	14,782	6,574	729	(1)	(1)	1,286	4,558	8,208	797	(1)	(1)	1,748	5,664
1950	14,159	6,291	659	(1)	(1)	1,224	4,408	7,868	735	(1)	(1)	1,613	5,520
1951	13,034	5,340	628	(1)	(1)	1,114	3,598	7,694	628	(1)	(1)	1,626	5,440
1952	12,310	4,776	642	(1)	(1)	1,032	3,102	7,534	652	(1)	(1)	1,590	5,292
1953	11,731	4,442	585	83	502	1,063	2,795	7,289	652	75	577	1,542	5,094
1954	11,696	4,436	508	90	418	1,067	2,861	7,260	644	103	541	1,580	5,035
1955	11,980	4,655	526	103	423	1,018	3,111	7,326	674	90	584	1,655	4,997
1956	11,833	4,706	524	74	450	984	3,198	7,127	602	80	522	1,587	4,938
1957[2]	11,917	4,794	455	57	398	1,021	3,318	7,123	612	102	510	1,611	4,900
1958	12,208	4,935	495	89	406	994	3,446	7,273	651	86	565	1,599	5,023
1959	12,613	5,240	479	61	418	1,097	3,664	7,373	594	80	514	1,655	5,124
1960	12,995	5,428	496	61	435	1,158	3,774	7,567	603	66	537	1,758	5,206
1961	13,465	5,638	485	67	418	1,237	3,916	7,827	570	93	477	1,950	5,307
1962	13,304	5,409	409	45	364	1,154	3,846	7,895	611	95	516	1,831	5,453
1963	13,572	5,495	395	46	349	1,135	3,965	8,077	563	67	496	1,847	5,667
1964	14,163	5,857	397	34	363	1,196	4,264	8,306	567	62	505	1,884	5,855
1965	14,435	5,887	455	35	420	1,351	4,081	8,548	496	44	452	2,048	6,004
1966	14,688	5,781	398	47	351	1,346	4,037	8,907	500	56	444	2,202	6,205
1967	14,904	5,889	389	66	323	1,272	4,228	9,015	532	67	465	2,061	6,422
1968	15,125	5,870	376	71	305	1,242	4,252	9,255	489	83	406	2,031	6,735
	Labor force (thousands)												
ENROLLED													
1947	(1)	(1)	744	(1)	(1)	149	(1)	(1)	393	(1)	(1)	89	(1)
1948	1,855	1,265	833	(1)	(1)	190	241	590	478	(1)	(1)	65	48
1949	1,877	1,197	775	(1)	(1)	163	258	680	502	(1)	(1)	106	72
1950	2,421	1,575	1,066	(1)	(1)	245	264	846	614	(1)	(1)	144	87
1951	2,290	1,428	1,012	(1)	(1)	172	244	862	656	(1)	(1)	126	80
1952	1,980	1,310	946	(1)	(1)	192	172	670	512	(1)	(1)	76	82
1953	1,888	1,226	855	382	473	206	165	662	474	197	277	96	92
1954	2,332	1,496	1,031	462	569	200	265	836	592	203	389	126	118
1955	2,706	1,801	1,185	510	675	330	286	905	634	282	352	135	136
1956	3,007	1,894	1,193	547	646	319	382	1,113	774	310	464	162	177
1957[2]	3,161	1,990	1,276	582	694	299	415	1,171	795	310	485	167	209
1958	3,116	2,037	1,276	514	762	309	452	1,079	717	285	432	211	151
1959	3,373	2,128	1,353	574	779	330	445	1,245	872	357	515	196	177
1960	3,390	2,171	1,386	580	806	371	414	1,219	841	336	505	210	168
1961	3,551	2,223	1,352	617	735	382	489	1,328	900	439	461	235	193
1962	3,872	2,481	1,437	651	786	423	621	1,391	940	413	527	203	248
1963	4,220	2,711	1,597	608	989	433	681	1,509	1,007	348	659	253	249
1964	4,315	2,732	1,646	612	1,034	446	640	1,583	1,071	388	683	241	271
1965	5,075	3,213	1,838	698	1,140	611	764	1,862	1,185	410	775	360	317
1966	5,284	3,276	1,808	604	1,204	690	778	2,008	1,218	407	811	447	348
1967	5,842	3,544	1,967	643	1,324	656	921	2,298	1,367	525	842	433	493
1968	6,167	3,808	2,042	717	1,325	811	955	2,359	1,417	508	909	453	489

Footnotes at end of table.

Table B–6. Labor Force Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–68—Continued

School enrollment and year	Both sexes, 14 to 24 years	Male						Female					
		Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years
			Total	14 and 15	16 and 17				Total	14 and 15	16 and 17		
	Labor force (thousands)—Continued												
NOT ENROLLED													
1947	(1)	(1)	808	(1)	(1)	1,199	(1)	(1)	464	(1)	(1)	1,128	(1)
1948	10,421	6,304	680	(1)	(1)	1,248	4,376	4,117	422	(1)	(1)	1,040	2,655
1949	10,306	6,181	625	(1)	(1)	1,214	4,342	4,125	399	(1)	(1)	1,062	2,664
1950	10,049	5,958	578	(1)	(1)	1,172	4,209	4,091	380	(1)	(1)	979	2,732
1951	8,920	5,064	512	(1)	(1)	1,058	3,494	3,856	296	(1)	(1)	984	2,576
1952	8,194	4,438	566	(1)	(1)	960	2,912	3,756	350	(1)	(1)	960	2,446
1953	7,823	4,204	500	65	434	1,019	2,685	3,620	311	23	288	959	2,350
1954	7,691	4,044	407	52	355	955	2,682	3,647	257	29	228	957	2,433
1955	8,155	4.400	428	54	374	965	3,007	3,755	299	23	276	1,025	2,431
1956	8,073	4,390	422	40	382	892	3,076	3,683	282	23	259	959	2,442
1957 [2]	7,975	4,507	362	31	331	947	3,198	3,467	240	16	225	993	2,234
1958	8,296	4,643	399	56	343	924	3,320	3,653	284	26	258	949	2,420
1959	8,530	4,931	366	31	335	1,019	3,546	3,599	250	20	230	951	2,398
1960	8,913	5,124	383	27	356	1,075	3,666	3,789	297	24	273	1,060	2,432
1961	9,230	5,228	353	32	321	1,115	3,760	4,002	263	20	243	1,173	2,566
1962	9,149	5,071	304	26	278	1,065	3,702	4,078	235	12	223	1,130	2,713
1963	9,314	5,158	293	20	273	1,061	3,804	4,156	227	10	217	1,133	2,796
1964	9,892	5,490	273	10	263	1,100	4,117	4,402	233	18	215	1,135	3,034
1965	10,131	5,518	356	14	342	1,232	3,930	4,613	205	11	194	1,297	3,111
1966	10,333	5,414	276	18	258	1,192	3,946	4,919	208	12	196	1,385	3,326
1967	10,534	5,454	264	20	244	1,118	4,072	5,080	208	14	200	1,311	3,555
1968	10,637	5,336	240	23	217	1,091	4,005	5,301	175	17	158	1,278	3,848
	Labor force participation rate [3]												
ENROLLED													
1947	(1)	(1)	22.1	(1)	(1)	25.4	(1)	(1)	11.7	(1)	(1)	21.2	(1)
1948	20.5	25.2	24.2	(1)	(1)	27.9	26.8	14.6	14.1	(1)	(1)	14.4	23.3
1949	21.2	24.6	22.5	(1)	(1)	27.5	31.2	17.1	15.1	(1)	(1)	24.4	33.5
1950	26.3	31.6	29.9	(1)	(1)	36.0	36.0	20.1	18.0	(1)	(1)	27.7	32.5
1951	25.3	30.0	28.0	(1)	(1)	32.2	40.5	20.1	18.2	(1)	(1)	28.6	32.8
1952	21.0	26.2	25.2	(1)	(1)	31.4	27.3	13.9	13.9	(1)	(1)	16.9	29.9
1953	19.5	23.9	22.2	17.3	29.0	32.1	25.9	14.5	12.8	9.2	17.9	17.8	26.6
1954	23.2	27.7	25.8	20.7	31.2	27.4	39.1	18.0	15.7	9.5	23.8	23.4	36.6
1955	26.5	32.5	28.9	22.3	37.3	43.9	41.7	19.4	16.4	12.6	21.4	28.1	42.0
1956	27.3	32.0	27.9	22.0	36.0	39.4	46.0	21.8	18.7	12.9	26.8	27.1	48.9
1957	26.8	31.5	27.5	21.3	36.2	38.3	46.3	21.3	18.0	11.9	26.6	26.6	47.6
1958	25.3	30.6	26.3	18.7	36.2	34.4	49.4	19.1	15.6	10.7	22.4	31.6	38.4
1959	26.5	31.1	26.9	21.1	33.5	35.9	49.9	21.2	18.2	13.7	23.5	28.7	45.3
1960	25.3	30.0	26.4	20.2	34.0	34.9	44.2	19.8	16.8	12.2	22.6	27.9	40.6
1961	24.4	28.3	23.7	18.2	31.8	32.6	49.5	19.8	16.5	13.6	20.7	30.1	40.3
1962	24.8	29.5	23.8	18.2	32.0	34.9	52.8	19.4	16.5	12.1	23.1	21.8	45.3
1963	25.4	30.3	24.9	17.5	33.7	36.7	49.9	19.7	16.5	10.4	23.8	28.7	38.4
1964	25.0	29.6	24.7	17.6	32.5	36.0	48.0	19.7	16.8	11.6	22.7	25.2	37.8
1965	27.7	32.6	27.8	19.7	37.2	36.2	49.0	22.0	18.5	11.9	26.0	29.0	39.6
1966	27.8	31.9	26.7	16.6	38.5	37.5	46.7	23.0	18.7	11.5	27.1	33.5	39.0
1967	29.7	33.8	28.2	17.2	40.9	40.1	49.5	25.0	20.5	14.4	27.8	31.2	43.7
1968	30.2	34.8	28.4	18.7	39.4	42.9	51.2	24.9	20.5	13.6	28.5	31.8	43.6
NOT ENROLLED													
1947	(1)	(1)	89.8	(1)	(1)	93.5	(1)	(1)	54.3	(1)	(1)	61.0	(1)
1948	69.9	95.4	89.6	(1)	(1)	95.6	96.3	49.6	55.5	(1)	(1)	58.8	46.0
1949	69.7	94.0	85.7	(1)	(1)	94.4	95.3	50.2	50.1	(1)	(1)	60.8	47.0
1950	71.0	94.7	87.7	(1)	(1)	95.8	95.5	52.0	51.7	(1)	(1)	60.7	49.5
1951	68.4	94.8	81.5	(1)	(1)	95.0	97.1	50.1	47.1	(1)	(1)	60.5	47.4
1952	66.6	92.9	88.2	(1)	(1)	93.0	93.9	49.9	53.7	(1)	(1)	60.4	46.2
1953	66.7	94.6	85.5	(4)	86.5	95.9	96.1	49.7	47.7	(4)	49.9	62.2	46.1
1954	65.8	91.2	80.1	(4)	84.9	89.5	93.7	50.2	39.9	(4)	42.1	60.6	48.3
1955	68.1	94.5	81.4	(4)	88.4	94.8	96.7	51.3	44.4	(4)	47.3	61.9	48.6
1956	68.2	93.3	80.5	(4)	84.9	90.7	96.2	51.7	46.8	(4)	49.6	60.4	49.5
1957	66.9	94.0	79.6	(4)	83.2	92.8	96.4	48.7	39.2	(4)	44.1	61.6	45.6
1958	68.0	94.1	80.6	(4)	84.5	93.0	96.3	50.2	43.6	(4)	45.7	59.3	48.2
1959	67.6	94.1	76.4	(4)	80.1	92.9	96.8	48.8	42.1	(4)	44.7	57.5	46.8
1960	68.6	94.4	77.2	(4)	81.8	92.8	97.1	50.1	49.3	(4)	50.8	60.3	46.7
1961	68.5	92.7	72.8	(4)	76.8	90.1	96.0	51.1	46.1	(4)	50.9	60.2	48.4
1962	68.8	93.8	74.3	(4)	76.4	92.3	51.7	51.7	38.5	(4)	43.2	61.7	49.8
1963	68.6	93.9	74.2	(4)	78.2	93.5	95.9	51.5	40.3	(4)	43.8	61.3	49.3
1964	69.8	93.7	68.8	(4)	72.5	92.0	96.6	53.0	41.1	(4)	42.6	60.2	51.8
1965	70.2	93.7	78.2	(4)	81.4	91.2	96.3	54.0	41.3	(4)	42.9	63.3	51.8
1966	70.3	93.7	69.3	(4)	73.5	88.6	97.7	55.2	41.6	(4)	44.1	62.9	53.6
1967	70.7	92.6	67.9	(5)	75.5	87.9	96.3	56.4	40.2	(5)	43.0	63.6	55.4
1968	70.3	90.9	63.8	(5)	71.1	87.8	94.2	57.3	35.8	20.5	38.9	62.9	57.1

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[1] Not available.

[2] Beginning 1957, data not strictly comparable with earlier years. See footnote 3, table B–1.

[3] Percent of the civilian noninstitutional population in the civilian labor force.

[4] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

[5] Percent not shown where base is less than 75,000.

NOTE: Because the number of 14- to 15-year-olds who are not enrolled in school is very small, the sampling variability for this group is relatively high.

Table B–7. Employment Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–68

School enrollment and year	Both sexes, 14 to 24 years	Male						Female					
		Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years
			Total	14 and 15	16 and 17				Total	14 and 15	16 and 17		
	Employed (thousands)												
ENROLLED													
1947	1,600	1,090	724	(1)	(1)	141	225	510	381	(1)	(1)	84	45
1948	1,794	1,219	814	(1)	(1)	182	223	575	468	(1)	(1)	61	46
1949	1,761	1,113	724	(1)	(1)	156	234	648	477	(1)	(1)	105	67
1950	2,331	1,522	1,028	(1)	(1)	232	262	809	585	(1)	(1)	139	86
1951	2,208	1,370	968	(1)	(1)	166	236	838	638	(1)	(1)	124	76
1952	1,914	1,266	910	(1)	(1)	186	170	648	492	(1)	(1)	74	82
1953	1,822	1,179	815	375	440	201	163	643	467	197	270	89	87
1954	2,206	1,396	964	441	523	187	245	810	573	199	374	121	116
1955	2,556	1,700	1,124	491	633	297	279	856	598	263	335	124	134
1956	2,856	1,792	1,131	530	601	299	362	1,064	733	306	427	158	173
1957[2]	2,983	1,869	1,202	556	646	275	392	1,114	750	298	452	161	203
1958	2,886	1,866	1,171	475	696	281	414	1,020	677	280	397	198	145
1959	3,145	1,971	1,250	549	701	299	422	1,174	818	347	471	185	171
1960	3,150	2,006	1,278	561	717	332	396	1,144	783	326	457	197	164
1961	3,255	2,025	1,211	571	640	343	471	1,230	831	423	408	216	183
1962	3,562	2,282	1,317	617	700	382	583	1,280	870	392	478	181	229
1963	3,841	2,485	1,446	580	866	393	646	1,356	904	320	584	223	229
1964	3,933	2,508	1,501	571	930	408	599	1,425	961	379	582	215	249
1965	4,652	2,920	1,657	656	1,001	536	727	1,732	1,111	403	708	326	295
1966	4,914	3,044	1,657	564	1,093	634	753	1,870	1,134	395	739	404	332
1967	5,244	3,150	1,692	556	1,136	582	876	2,094	1,251	500	751	383	460
1968	5,616	3,457	1,808	641	1,167	737	912	2,159	1,293	485	808	404	462
NOT ENROLLED													
1947	10,161	6,009	719	(1)	(1)	1,110	4,180	4,152	422	(1)	(1)	1,074	2,656
1948	9,903	5,969	627	(1)	(1)	1,154	4,187	3,934	392	(1)	(1)	993	2,548
1949	9,221	5,466	521	(1)	(1)	1,068	3,878	3,754	349	(1)	(1)	948	2,457
1950	9,527	5,679	515	(1)	(1)	1,100	4,064	3,848	342	(1)	(1)	904	2,601
1951	8,532	4,864	474	(1)	(1)	1,010	3,380	3,668	264	(1)	(1)	924	2,480
1952	7,800	4,230	506	(1)	(1)	924	2,800	3,570	316	(1)	(1)	894	2,360
1953	7,499	4,033	442	63	379	971	2,620	3,466	278	21	258	909	2,279
1954	7,070	3,702	343	44	299	892	2,467	3,368	206	25	181	862	2,300
1955	7,651	4,141	357	52	305	908	2,876	3,510	270	21	249	951	2,289
1956	7,593	4,135	360	31	329	845	2,930	3,458	255	18	237	893	2,310
1957[2]	7,399	4,135	304	24	280	844	2,987	3,264	209	16	193	933	2,122
1958	7,368	4,073	303	48	255	771	2,999	3,295	222	22	200	845	2,228
1959	7,702	4,445	277	28	249	865	3,303	3,257	212	17	195	826	2,219
1960	8,017	4,604	312	21	291	898	3,394	3,413	237	16	221	922	2,254
1961	8,199	4,660	276	24	252	945	3,439	3,539	213	19	194	1,003	2,323
1962	8,275	4,616	258	22	236	927	3,431	3,659	193	12	181	991	2,475
1963	8,292	4,677	234	17	217	904	3,539	3,615	152	10	142	964	2,499
1964	8,930	5,006	234	10	224	954	3,818	3,924	174	15	159	961	2,789
1965	9,359	5,169	300	14	286	1,104	3,765	4,190	159	11	148	1,119	2,912
1966	9,585	5,131	225	17	208	1,092	3,814	4,454	153	10	143	1,210	3,091
1967	9,661	5,117	208	14	194	998	3,911	4,544	166	10	156	1,100	3,278
1968	9,835	5,012	201	17	184	987	3,824	4,823	133	16	117	1,113	3,577
	Unemployed (thousands)												
ENROLLED													
1947	(1)	(1)	20	(1)	(1)	8	(1)	(1)	12	(1)	(1)	5	(1)
1948	61	46	19	(1)	(1)	9	19	15	10	(1)	(1)	3	2
1949	116	84	51	(1)	(1)	8	25	32	25	(1)	(1)	2	6
1950	89	53	38	(1)	(1)	13	2	36	29	(1)	(1)	6	2
1951	82	58	44	(1)	(1)	6	8	24	18	(1)	(1)	2	4
1952	66	44	36	(1)	(1)	6	2	22	20	(1)	(1)	2	0
1953	66	47	40	7	33	5	2	18	7	0	7	7	5
1954	126	100	67	21	46	13	20	26	19	4	15	5	2
1955	150	101	61	19	42	33	7	49	36	19	17	11	2
1956	151	102	62	17	45	20	20	49	41	4	37	4	4
1957[2]	178	121	74	26	48	24	23	57	45	12	33	6	6
1958	230	171	105	39	66	28	38	59	40	5	35	13	6
1959	228	157	103	25	78	31	23	71	54	10	44	11	6
1960	240	165	108	19	89	39	18	75	58	10	48	13	4
1961	296	198	141	46	95	39	18	98	69	16	53	19	10
1962	310	199	120	34	86	41	38	111	70	21	49	22	19
1963	379	226	151	28	123	40	35	153	103	28	75	30	20
1964	382	224	145	41	104	38	41	158	110	9	101	26	22
1965	423	293	181	42	139	75	37	130	74	7	67	34	22
1966	370	232	151	40	111	56	25	138	84	12	72	43	11
1967	598	394	275	87	188	74	45	204	116	25	91	50	38
1968	551	351	234	76	158	74	43	200	124	23	101	49	27

Footnotes at end of table.

Table B–7. Employment Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–68—Continued

School enrollment and year	Both sexes, 14 to 24 years	Male						Female					
		Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years
			Total	14 and 15	16 and 17				Total	14 and 15	16 and 17		
	Unemployed (thousands)—Continued												
NOT ENROLLED													
1947	(1)	(1)	89	(1)	(1)	89	(1)	(1)	42	(1)	(1)	54	(1)
1948	519	335	53	(1)	(1)	94	189	184	29	(1)	(1)	48	107
1949	1,085	714	104	(1)	(1)	146	464	371	50	(1)	(1)	114	207
1950	522	279	63	(1)	(1)	72	144	243	38	(1)	(1)	74	131
1951	388	200	38	(1)	(1)	48	114	188	32	(1)	(1)	60	96
1952	394	208	60	(1)	(1)	36	112	186	34	(1)	(1)	66	86
1953	324	171	58	2	56	48	66	152	32	2	30	50	71
1954	621	342	64	8	56	63	215	279	51	4	47	95	133
1955	504	259	71	2	69	57	131	245	29	2	27	74	142
1956	480	255	62	9	53	47	146	225	27	5	22	66	132
1957 [2]	576	372	58	7	51	103	211	203	31	0	32	60	112
1958	928	570	96	8	88	153	321	358	62	4	58	104	192
1959	828	486	89	3	86	154	243	342	38	3	35	125	179
1960	896	520	71	6	65	177	272	376	60	8	52	138	178
1961	1,031	568	77	8	69	170	321	463	50	1	49	170	243
1962	874	455	46	4	42	138	271	419	42	0	42	139	238
1963	1,022	481	59	3	56	157	265	541	75	0	75	169	297
1964	962	484	39	0	39	146	299	478	59	3	56	174	245
1965	772	349	56	0	56	128	165	423	46	0	46	178	199
1966	748	283	51	1	50	100	132	465	55	2	53	175	235
1967	873	337	56	6	50	120	161	536	48	4	44	211	277
1968	802	324	39	6	33	104	181	478	42	1	41	165	271
	Unemployment rate												
ENROLLED													
1947	(1)	(1)	2.7	(1)	(1)	5.4	(1)	(1)	3.1	(1)	(1)	5.6	(1)
1948	3.3	3.6	2.3	(1)	(1)	4.7	7.9	2.5	2.1	(1)	(1)	(3)	(3)
1949	6.2	7.0	6.6	(1)	(1)	4.9	9.7	4.7	5.0	(1)	(1)	1.9	(3)
1950	3.7	3.4	3.6	(1)	(1)	5.3	.8	4.3	4.7	(1)	(1)	4.2	(3)
1951	3.6	4.1	4.3	(1)	(1)	3.5	3.3	3.0	2.7	(1)	(1)	1.6	(3)
1952	3.3	3.4	3.8	(1)	(1)	3.1	1.2	3.4	3.9	(1)	(1)	(3)	(3)
1953	3.5	3.8	4.7	1.8	7.0	2.4	1.2	2.7	1.5	0	2.5	(3)	(3)
1954	5.4	6.7	6.5	4.5	8.1	6.5	7.5	3.1	3.2	2.0	3.9	4.0	1.7
1955	5.5	5.6	5.1	3.7	6.2	10.0	2.4	5.4	5.7	6.7	4.8	8.1	1.5
1956	5.0	5.4	5.2	3.1	7.0	6.3	5.2	4.4	5.3	1.3	8.0	2.5	2.3
1957 [2]	5.6	6.1	5.8	4.5	6.9	8.0	5.5	4.9	5.7	3.9	6.8	3.6	2.9
1958	7.4	8.4	8.2	7.6	8.7	9.1	8.4	5.5	5.6	1.8	8.1	6.2	4.0
1959	6.8	7.4	7.6	4.4	10.0	9.4	5.2	5.7	6.2	2.8	8.5	5.6	3.4
1960	7.1	7.6	7.8	3.3	11.0	10.5	4.3	6.2	6.9	3.0	9.5	6.2	2.4
1961	8.3	8.9	10.4	7.5	12.9	10.2	3.7	7.4	7.7	3.6	11.5	8.1	5.2
1962	8.0	8.0	8.4	5.2	10.9	9.7	6.1	8.0	7.4	5.1	9.3	10.8	7.7
1963	9.0	8.3	9.5	4.6	12.4	9.2	5.1	10.1	10.2	8.0	11.4	11.9	8.0
1964	8.9	8.2	8.8	6.7	10.1	8.5	6.4	10.0	10.3	2.3	14.8	10.8	8.1
1965	8.3	9.1	9.8	6.0	12.2	12.3	4.8	7.0	6.2	1.7	8.6	9.4	6.9
1966	7.5	7.6	8.4	6.6	9.2	8.1	3.2	7.4	6.9	2.9	8.9	9.6	3.2
1967	10.2	11.1	14.0	13.5	14.2	11.3	4.9	8.9	8.5	4.8	10.8	11.5	7.6
1968	8.9	9.2	11.5	10.6	11.9	9.1	4.5	8.5	8.8	4.5	11.1	10.8	5.5
NOT ENROLLED													
1947	(1)	(1)	11.0	(1)	(1)	7.4	(1)	(1)	9.1	(1)	(1)	5.0	(1)
1948	5.0	5.3	7.8	(1)	(1)	7.5	4.3	4.5	6.9	(1)	(1)	4.6	4.0
1949	10.5	11.6	16.6	(1)	(1)	12.0	10.7	9.0	12.5	(1)	(1)	10.7	7.8
1950	5.2	4.7	10.9	(1)	(1)	6.1	3.4	5.9	10.0	(1)	(1)	7.6	4.8
1951	4.3	3.8	7.4	(1)	(1)	4.5	3.3	4.5	10.8	(1)	(1)	6.1	3.7
1952	4.8	4.9	10.6	(1)	(1)	3.8	3.8	4.3	9.7	(1)	(1)	6.9	3.5
1953	4.1	4.1	11.6	(3)	12.9	4.7	2.5	4.2	10.3	(3)	10.4	5.2	3.0
1954	8.1	8.5	15.7	(3)	15.8	6.6	8.0	7.7	19.8	(3)	20.6	9.9	5.5
1955	6.2	5.9	16.6	(3)	18.4	5.9	4.4	6.5	9.7	(3)	9.8	7.2	5.8
1956	5.9	5.8	14.7	(3)	13.9	5.3	4.7	6.1	9.6	(3)	8.5	6.9	5.4
1957 [2]	7.2	8.3	16.0	(3)	15.4	10.9	6.6	5.9	12.9	(3)	14.2	6.0	5.0
1958	11.2	12.3	24.1	(3)	25.7	16.6	9.7	9.8	21.8	(3)	22.5	11.0	7.9
1959	9.7	9.9	24.3	(3)	25.7	15.1	6.9	9.5	15.2	(3)	15.2	13.1	7.5
1960	10.1	10.1	18.5	(3)	18.3	16.5	7.4	9.9	20.2	(3)	19.0	13.0	7.3
1961	11.2	10.9	21.8	(3)	21.5	15.2	8.5	11.6	19.0	(3)	20.2	14.5	9.5
1962	9.6	9.0	15.1	(3)	15.1	13.0	7.3	10.3	17.9	(3)	18.8	12.3	8.8
1963	11.0	9.3	20.1	(3)	20.5	14.8	7.0	13.0	33.0	(3)	34.6	14.9	10.6
1964	9.7	8.8	14.3	(3)	14.8	13.3	7.3	10.9	25.3	(3)	26.0	15.3	8.1
1965	7.6	6.3	15.7	(3)	16.4	10.4	4.2	9.2	22.4	(3)	23.7	13.7	6.4
1966	7.8	5.5	18.5	(3)	19.4	8.4	3.3	10.4	26.4	(3)	27.0	12.6	7.1
1967	8.3	6.2	21.2	(4)	20.5	10.7	4.0	10.6	22.4	(4)	22.0	16.1	7.8
1968	7.5	6.1	16.2	(4)	15.2	9.5	4.5	9.0	24.0	(4)	25.9	12.9	7.0

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[1] Not available.

[2] Beginning 1957, data not strictly comparable with earlier years. See footnote 3, table B–1.

[3] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

[4] Percent not shown where base is less than 75,000.

NOTE: Because the number of 14- to 15-year-olds who are not enrolled in school is very small, the sampling variability for this group is relatively high.

Table B–8. Employment Status of High School Graduates Not Enrolled in College and of School Dropouts as of October of Year of Graduation or Dropout, by Sex, Marital Status of Women, and Color, 1959–68

[Persons 16 to 24 years of age; numbers in thousands]

Item	High school graduates							School dropouts						
	Civilian noninstitutional population	Civilian labor force					Not in labor force	Civilian noninstitutional population	Civilian labor force					Not in labor force
		Total		Employed	Unemployed				Total		Employed	Unemployed		
		Number	Percent of population		Number	Percent of civilian labor force			Number	Percent of population		Number	Percent of civilian labor force	
1959[1]														
Total	790	634	80.2	549	85	13.5	156	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
Male	304	279	91.7	239	40	14.3	25	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
Female	486	355	73.0	310	45	12.8	131	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
Single	418	331	79.2	291	40	12.1	88	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	68	24	(³)	19	5	(³)	43	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
1960														
Total	921	706	76.7	599	107	15.2	215	344	214	62.2	175	39	18.2	130
Male	348	308	88.5	262	46	14.9	40	165	126	76.4	102	24	19.0	39
Female	573	398	69.5	337	61	15.3	175	179	88	49.2	73	15	(³)	91
Single	473	359	75.9	308	51	14.2	114	110	71	64.5	60	11	(³)	39
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	100	39	39.0	29	10	(³)	61	69	17	(³)	13	4	(³)	52
White	848	653	77.0	568	85	13.0	195	273	163	59.7	133	30	18.4	110
Negro and other races	73	53	(³)	31	22	(³)	20	71	51	(³)	42	9	(³)	20
1961														
Total	916	730	79.7	599	131	17.9	186	354	239	67.5	175	64	26.8	115
Male	345	297	86.1	242	55	18.5	48	179	150	83.8	108	42	28.0	29
Female	571	433	75.8	357	76	17.6	138	175	89	50.9	67	22	(³)	86
Single	482	392	81.3	326	66	16.8	90	119	75	63.0	55	20	(³)	44
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	89	41	(³)	31	10	(³)	48	56	14	(³)	12	2	(³)	42
White	814	651	80.0	545	106	16.3	163	283	189	66.8	134	55	29.1	94
Negro and other races	102	79	77.4	54	25	(³)	23	71	50	(³)	41	9	(³)	21
1962														
Total	938	746	79.5	641	105	14.1	192	285	161	56.5	115	46	28.6	124
Male	392	356	90.8	305	51	14.3	36	126	107	84.9	78	29	27.1	19
Female	546	390	71.4	336	54	13.8	156	159	54	34.0	37	17	(³)	105
Single	469	352	75.1	309	43	12.2	117	83	43	(³)	28	15	(³)	40
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	77	38	(³)	27	11	(³)	39	76	11	(³)	9	2	(³)	65
White	820	657	80.1	568	89	13.5	163	210	113	53.8	83	30	26.5	97
Negro and other races	118	89	75.4	73	16	(³)	29	75	48	(³)	32	16	(³)	27
1963														
Total	957	755	78.9	619	136	18.0	202	273	180	65.9	123	57	31.7	93
Male	379	340	89.7	275	65	19.1	39	132	110	83.3	85	25	22.7	22
Female	578	415	71.8	344	71	17.1	163	141	70	49.6	38	32	(³)	71
Single	489	368	75.3	311	57	15.5	121	79	50	(³)	25	25	(³)	29
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	89	47	(³)	33	14	(³)	42	62	20	(³)	13	7	(³)	42
White	879	690	78.5	580	110	15.9	189	217	151	69.6	101	50	33.1	66
Negro and other races	78	65	(³)	39	26	(³)	13	56	29	(³)	22	7	(³)	27
1964														
Total	1,108	863	77.9	702	161	18.7	245	244	152	62.3	101	51	33.6	92
Male	427	388	90.9	338	50	12.9	39	116	97	83.6	72	25	(³)	19
Female	681	475	69.8	364	111	23.4	206	128	55	43.0	29	26	(³)	73
Single	574	432	75.3	334	98	22.7	142	82	39	(³)	19	20	(³)	43
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	107	43	40.2	30	13	(³)	64	46	16	(³)	10	6	(³)	30
White	997	773	77.5	644	129	16.8	224	203	121	59.6	82	39	32.2	82
Negro and other races	111	90	81.1	58	32	(³)	21	41	31	(³)	19	12	(³)	10
1965														
Total	1,305	1,071	82.1	938	133	12.4	234	304	183	60.2	146	37	20.2	121
Male	536	488	91.0	452	36	7.4	48	168	133	79.2	106	27	20.3	35
Female	769	583	75.8	486	97	16.6	186	136	50	36.8	40	10	(³)	86
Single	645	508	78.8	425	83	16.3	137	83	40	(³)	33	7	(³)	43
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	124	75	60.5	61	14	(³)	49	53	10	(³)	7	3	(³)	43
White	1,168	963	82.4	859	104	10.8	205	247	153	61.9	122	31	20.3	94
Negro and other races	137	108	78.8	79	29	26.9	29	57	30	(³)	24	6	(³)	27

Footnotes at end of table.

Table B–8. Employment Status of High School Graduates Not Enrolled in College and of School Dropouts as of October of Year of Graduation or Dropout, by Sex, Marital Status of Women, and Color, 1959–68—Continued

Item	High school graduates							School dropouts						
	Civilian noninstitutional population	Civilian labor force					Not in labor force	Civilian noninstitutional population	Civilian labor force					Not in labor force
		Total		Employed	Unemployed				Total		Employed	Unemployed		
		Number	Percent of population		Number	Percent of civilian labor force			Number	Percent of population		Number	Percent of civilian labor force	
1966														
Total	1,303	986	75.7	846	140	14.2	317	266	172	64.7	141	31	18.0	94
Male	498	435	87.3	397	38	8.7	63	152	124	81.6	101	23	18.5	28
Female	805	551	68.4	449	102	18.5	254	114	48	42.1	40	8	(3)	66
Single	668	485	72.6	399	86	17.7	183	75	43	(3)	35	8	(3)	32
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	137	66	48.2	50	16	(3)	71	39	5	(3)	5	------	(3)	34
White	1,160	893	77.0	778	115	12.9	267	218	141	64.7	119	22	15.6	77
Negro and other races	143	93	65.0	68	25	(3)	50	48	31	(3)	22	9	(3)	17
1967														
Total	1,214	956	78.7	801	155	16.2	258	301	196	65.1	149	47	24.0	105
Male	484	419	86.6	379	40	9.5	65	157	129	82.2	104	25	19.4	28
Female	730	537	73.6	422	115	21.4	193	144	67	46.5	45	22	(4)	77
Single	630	486	77.0	384	102	21.0	144	94	49	52.1	33	16	(4)	45
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	100	51	51.0	38	13	(4)	49	50	18	(4)	12	6	(4)	32
White	1,064	847	79.6	728	119	14.0	217	239	157	65.7	122	35	22.3	82
Negro and other races	150	109	72.7	73	36	33.0	41	62	39	(4)	27	12	(4)	23
1968														
Total	1,162	904	77.8	782	122	13.5	258	328	208	63.4	164	44	21.2	120
Male	436	384	88.1	345	39	10.2	52	177	134	75.7	111	23	17.2	43
Female	726	520	71.6	437	83	16.0	206	151	74	49.0	53	21	(4)	77
Single	591	449	76.0	380	69	15.4	142	95	52	54.7	36	16	(4)	43
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	135	71	52.6	57	14	(4)	64	56	22	(4)	17	5	(4)	34
White	999	775	77.4	684	91	11.7	224	257	171	66.5	134	37	21.6	86
Negro and other races	163	129	79.1	98	31	24.0	34	71	37	(4)	30	7	(4)	34

[1] Data not available by color.

[2] Not available.

[3] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

[4] Percent not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Table B–9. Years of School Completed by the Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex and Color, Selected Dates, 1952–69

Sex, color, and date	Total, 18 years and over (thousands)	Percent distribution								Median school years completed
		Total	Elementary		High school		College		School years not reported	
			Less than 5 years [1]	5 to 8 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years or more		
BOTH SEXES										
Total										
October 1952	60,772	100.0	7.3	30.2	18.5	26.6	8.3	7.9	1.2	10.9
March 1957	64,384	100.0	6.1	26.8	19.1	29.1	8.5	9.0	1.4	11.6
March 1959	65,842	100.0	5.2	24.8	19.5	30.3	9.2	9.5	1.6	12.0
March 1962	67,988	100.0	4.6	22.4	19.3	32.1	10.7	11.0	(2)	12.1
March 1964	69,926	100.0	3.7	20.9	19.2	34.5	10.6	11.2	(2)	12.2
March 1965	71,129	100.0	3.7	19.6	19.2	35.5	10.5	11.6	(2)	12.2
March 1966	71,958	100.0	3.3	18.9	19.0	36.3	10.8	11.8	(2)	12.2
March 1967	73,218	100.0	3.1	17.9	18.7	36.6	11.8	12.0	(2)	12.3
March 1968	75,101	100.0	2.9	16.8	18.2	37.5	12.2	12.4	(2)	12.3
March 1969	76,753	100.0	2.7	15.9	17.8	38.4	12.6	12.6	(2)	12.4
White										
October 1952	(2)	100.0	5.2	29.3	18.7	28.3	8.8	8.5	1.2	11.4
March 1957	(2)	100.0	4.3	25.8	19.0	30.8	9.0	9.7	1.2	12.1
March 1959	58,726	100.0	3.7	23.6	19.4	32.0	9.7	10.2	1.4	12.1
March 1962	60,451	100.0	3.3	21.4	18.8	33.5	11.3	11.8	(2)	12.2
March 1964	62,213	100.0	2.7	19.8	18.5	36.0	11.1	11.9	(2)	12.2
March 1965	63,261	100.0	2.7	18.9	18.4	36.8	11.0	12.2	(2)	12.3
March 1966	63,958	100.0	2.3	17.8	18.3	37.7	11.2	12.5	(2)	12.3
March 1967	65,076	100.0	2.2	16.9	18.1	37.7	12.4	12.8	(2)	12.3
March 1968	66,721	100.0	1.9	16.1	17.4	38.6	12.8	13.2	(2)	12.4
March 1969	68,300	100.0	2.0	15.1	16.9	39.7	13.0	13.4	(2)	12.4

Footnotes at end of table.

Table B–9. Years of School Completed by the Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex and Color, Selected Dates, 1952–69—Continued

Sex, color, and date	Total, 18 years and over (thousands)	Percent distribution								Median school years completed
		Total	Elementary		High school		College		School years not reported	
			Less than 5 years [1]	5 to 8 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years or more		
Both Sexes—Continued										
Negro and other races										
October 1952	(3)	100.0	26.7	38.7	15.9	10.8	3.7	2.6	1.7	7.6
March 1957	(3)	100.0	21.2	34.9	19.3	14.8	3.9	3.4	2.6	8.4
March 1959	7,116	100.0	17.9	34.3	20.6	15.8	4.5	3.9	3.1	8.7
March 1962	7,537	100.0	15.4	29.8	23.2	21.0	5.7	4.8	(2)	9.6
March 1964	7,713	100.0	11.6	29.2	24.7	22.2	6.6	5.7	(2)	10.1
March 1965	7,868	100.0	11.8	25.7	24.9	24.4	6.1	7.0	(2)	10.5
March 1966	8,000	100.0	11.1	26.7	24.3	24.8	7.1	5.8	(2)	10.5
March 1967	8,142	100.0	10.4	25.5	23.7	27.5	7.2	5.8	(2)	10.1
March 1968	8,380	100.0	9.5	23.5	24.3	28.3	7.7	6.7	(2)	11.8
March 1969	8,453	100.0	8.6	22.6	24.7	28.4	9.0	6.7	(2)	11.3
Male										
Total										
October 1952	41,684	100.0	8.2	32.4	18.6	23.3	8.0	8.0	1.5	10.4
March 1957 [4]	43,721	100.0	7.0	28.8	19.3	25.8	8.2	9.4	1.5	11.1
March 1959	44,286	100.0	6.1	26.6	19.9	26.7	8.9	10.3	1.6	11.5
March 1962	45,011	100.0	5.4	24.2	19.6	28.7	10.4	11.7	(2)	12.0
March 1964	45,600	100.0	4.4	22.5	19.4	31.1	10.6	12.1	(2)	12.1
March 1965	46,258	100.0	4.4	21.3	19.4	32.0	10.5	12.4	(2)	12.2
March 1966	46,356	100.0	3.9	20.6	19.3	32.6	10.7	12.8	(2)	12.2
March 1967	46,571	100.0	3.7	19.7	18.8	32.9	11.7	13.2	(2)	12.2
March 1968	47,255	100.0	3.4	18.6	18.6	33.8	12.2	13.6	(2)	12.3
March 1969	47,862	100.0	3.2	17.6	18.1	34.4	12.6	13.9	(2)	12.3
White										
October 1952	(3)	100.0	6.3	31.9	18.9	24.6	8.4	8.5	1.4	10.8
March 1959	39,956	100.0	4.3	25.7	19.9	28.2	9.5	11.0	1.4	11.9
March 1962	40,503	100.0	3.8	23.4	19.3	29.9	11.0	12.6	(2)	12.1
March 1964	41,028	100.0	3.2	21.7	18.8	32.4	11.1	12.7	(2)	12.2
March 1965	41,652	100.0	3.2	20.7	18.8	33.2	11.0	13.1	(2)	12.2
March 1966	41,706	100.0	2.8	19.8	18.7	33.8	11.1	13.7	(2)	12.3
March 1967	41,911	100.0	2.6	18.8	18.3	33.9	12.3	14.1	(2)	12.3
March 1968	42,483	100.0	2.4	17.9	17.9	34.7	12.7	14.4	(2)	12.3
March 1969	43,111	100.0	2.4	16.9	17.4	35.4	13.1	14.7	(2)	12.4
Negro and other races										
October 1952	(3)	100.0	29.8	38.3	15.0	9.5	3.4	1.9	2.1	7.2
March 1959	4,330	100.0	21.5	34.6	19.4	13.3	4.1	3.5	3.6	8.3
March 1962	4,508	100.0	19.3	31.2	22.2	18.3	5.4	3.6	(2)	9.0
March 1964	4,572	100.0	14.8	29.9	24.5	19.1	5.7	6.1	(2)	9.7
March 1965	4,606	100.0	15.4	26.4	24.4	21.4	6.0	6.4	(2)	10.0
March 1966	4,650	100.0	14.1	28.0	24.3	21.9	6.6	5.1	(2)	10.0
March 1967	4,660	100.0	13.1	27.3	23.3	24.4	6.7	5.3	(2)	10.2
March 1968	4,772	100.0	12.2	24.0	25.0	25.3	7.6	6.0	(2)	10.7
March 1969	4,751	100.0	10.9	24.2	24.7	25.6	8.1	6.5	(2)	10.8
Female										
Total										
October 1952	19,088	100.0	5.4	25.4	18.2	33.8	8.8	7.7	.6	12.0
March 1957 [4]	20,663	100.0	4.2	22.6	18.6	36.1	9.1	8.2	1.2	12.1
March 1959	21,556	100.0	3.5	21.1	18.8	37.6	9.6	7.9	1.4	12.2
March 1962	22,977	100.0	3.0	18.8	18.8	38.7	11.2	9.5	(2)	12.2
March 1964	24,326	100.0	2.4	17.8	18.8	40.9	10.6	9.5	(2)	12.3
March 1965	24,871	100.0	2.4	16.6	18.7	41.9	10.4	10.0	(2)	12.3
March 1966	25,602	100.0	2.1	15.7	18.4	43.0	11.0	9.9	(2)	12.3
March 1967	26,647	100.0	2.1	14.8	18.5	42.9	11.8	9.9	(2)	12.3
March 1968	27,846	100.0	1.9	14.1	17.6	43.7	12.3	10.5	(2)	12.4
March 1969	28,891	100.0	1.8	13.1	17.3	45.0	12.4	10.4	(2)	12.4
White										
October 1952	(3)	100.0	2.9	23.4	18.4	36.9	9.6	8.3	.6	12.1
March 1959	18,770	100.0	2.2	19.2	18.3	40.2	10.3	8.5	1.3	12.2
March 1962	19,948	100.0	2.1	17.4	17.9	40.8	11.9	10.0	(2)	12.3
March 1964	21,185	100.0	1.8	16.2	17.8	43.0	11.0	10.1	(2)	12.3
March 1965	21,609	100.0	1.7	15.3	17.7	43.9	11.0	10.3	(2)	12.3
March 1966	22,252	100.0	1.3	14.4	17.5	45.1	11.4	10.3	(2)	12.4
March 1967	23,165	100.0	1.3	13.5	17.6	44.7	12.4	10.4	(2)	12.4
March 1968	24,238	100.0	1.3	12.8	16.7	45.4	12.9	10.9	(2)	12.4
March 1969	25,189	100.0	1.3	11.9	16.2	46.9	12.8	10.9	(2)	12.4
Negro and other races										
October 1952	(3)	100.0	22.4	39.2	17.1	12.6	4.0	3.6	1.1	8.1
March 1959	2,786	100.0	12.2	33.9	22.5	19.7	5.0	4.6	2.2	9.4
March 1962	3,029	100.0	9.8	27.8	24.8	24.9	6.0	6.7	(2)	10.5
March 1964	3,141	100.0	7.0	28.2	25.1	26.6	7.8	5.3	(2)	10.8
March 1965	3,262	100.0	6.7	24.9	25.7	28.6	6.3	7.8	(2)	11.1
March 1966	3,350	100.0	7.0	24.9	24.4	28.9	7.9	6.9	(2)	11.2
March 1967	3,482	100.0	6.9	23.1	24.2	31.6	7.9	6.4	(2)	11.5
March 1968	3,608	100.0	5.9	22.7	23.4	32.3	7.9	7.8	(2)	11.7
March 1969	3,702	100.0	5.6	20.7	24.7	31.9	10.1	7.0	(2)	11.9

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[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.

[2] Data for persons whose educational attainment was not reported were distributed among the other categories.

[3] Not available; data published as percent distribution only.

[4] Data by color not available for March 1957.

Table B–10. Median Years of School Completed by the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 18 Years and Over, by Employment Status and Sex, Selected Dates, 1952–69

Sex and date	Total, 18 years and over	Labor force					Not in labor force
		Total	Employed			Unemployed	
			Total	Agriculture	Nonagriculture		
Both Sexes							
October 1952	10.6	10.9	10.9	(1)	(1)	10.1	10.0
March 1957	11.0	11.6	11.7	(1)	(1)	9.4	10.2
March 1959	11.4	12.0	12.0	8.6	12.1	9.9	10.5
March 1962	11.9	12.1	12.1	8.7	12.2	10.6	10.7
March 1964	12.0	12.2	12.2	8.8	12.2	10.9	10.9
March 1965	12.1	12.2	12.2	8.8	12.3	11.1	11.1
March 1966	12.1	12.2	12.3	8.9	12.3	11.2	11.2
March 1967	12.1	12.3	12.3	9.0	12.3	11.4	11.3
March 1968	12.2	12.3	12.3	9.4	12.4	11.6	11.5
March 1969	12.2	12.4	12.4	9.7	12.4	11.9	11.7
Male							
October 1952	10.1	10.4	10.4	(1)	(1)	8.8	8.5
March 1957	10.7	11.1	11.2	(1)	(1)	8.9	8.5
March 1959	11.1	11.5	11.7	8.6	12.0	9.5	8.5
March 1962	11.6	12.0	12.1	8.7	12.1	10.0	8.7
March 1964	12.0	12.1	12.1	8.8	12.2	10.3	8.7
March 1965	12.0	12.2	12.2	8.7	12.2	10.6	8.8
March 1966	12.1	12.2	12.2	8.8	12.3	10.6	8.9
March 1967	12.1	12.2	12.3	8.9	12.3	10.7	9.0
March 1968	12.2	12.3	12.3	9.0	12.3	11.2	9.2
March 1969	12 2	12.3	12.3	9.2	12.4	11.2	9.6
Female							
October 1952	11.0	12.0	12.0	(1)	(1)	11.5	10.4
March 1957	11.4	12.1	12.1	(1)	(1)	10.4	10.7
March 1959	11.7	12.2	12.2	8.8	12.2	10.7	10.9
March 1962	12.0	12.2	12.3	9.4	12.3	11.5	11.2
March 1964	12.1	12.3	12.3	9.5	12.3	11.9	11.5
March 1965	12.1	12.3	12.3	9.4	12.3	11.9	11.7
March 1966	12.1	12.3	12.3	10.6	12.3	12.1	11.7
March 1967	12.1	12.3	12.4	11.3	12.4	12.0	11.9
March 1968	12.2	12.4	12.4	11.3	12.4	12.0	12.0
March 1969	12.2	12.4	12.4	11.7	12.4	12.1	12.0

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[1] Not available.

Table B–11. Median Years of School Completed by the Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex and Age, Selected Dates, 1952–69

Sex and date	18 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
Both Sexes						
October 1952	12.2	12.1	11.4	8.8		8.3
March 1957	12.3	12.2	12.0	9.5		8.5
March 1959	12.3	12.3	12.1	10.8	8.9	8.6
March 1962	12.4	12.4	12.2	11.6	9.4	8.8
March 1964	12.4	12.4	12.2	12.0	10.0	8.9
March 1965	12.4	12.5	12.3	12.0	10.3	8.9
March 1966	12.5	12.5	12.3	12.1	10.4	9.1
March 1967	12.5	12.5	12.3	12.1	10.8	9.0
March 1968	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.2	11.1	9.3
March 1969	12.5	12.6	12.4	12.3	11.4	9.3
Male						
October 1952	11.5	12.1	11.2	8.7		8.2
March 1957	12.1	12.2	11.8	9.0		8.4
March 1959	12.1	12.3	12.1	10.4	8.8	8.5
March 1962	12.3	12.4	12.2	11.1	9.0	8.7
March 1964	12.3	12.4	12.2	11.6	9.3	8.8
March 1965	12.3	12.5	12.3	11.7	9.6	8.8
March 1966	12.4	12.5	12.3	11.9	9.7	8.9
March 1967	12.4	12.5	12.3	12.1	10.4	8.9
March 1968	12.4	12.5	12.4	12.2	10.6	9.0
March 1969	12.4	12.6	12.4	12.2	10.9	9.0
Female						
October 1952	12.4	12.2	11.9	9.2		8.8
March 1957	12.4	12.3	12.1	10.8		8.8
March 1959	12.4	12.3	12.2	11.7	10.0	8.8
March 1962	12.5	12.4	12.3	12.1	10.7	9.0
March 1964	12.5	12.4	12.3	12.1	11.2	10.2
March 1965	12.5	12.4	12.3	12.2	11.5	9.8
March 1966	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.2	11.6	10.4
March 1967	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.2	11.6	10.1
March 1968	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.3	12.0	10.3
March 1969	12.6	12.5	12.4	12.3	12.1	10.2

Table B–12. Median Years of School Completed by the Employed Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex, Occupation Group, and Color, Selected Dates, 1948–69

Sex and occupation group	Total										
	March 1969	March 1968	March 1967	March 1966	March 1965	March 1964	March 1962	March 1959	March 1957	October 1952	October 1948 [1]
BOTH SEXES											
All occupation groups	12.4	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.2	12.2	12.1	12.0	11.7	10.9	10.6
Professional and managerial workers	14.9	14.8	14.7	14.6	14.2	14.0	13.9	13.5	13.2	12.9	12.8
Professional and technical workers	16.3	16.3	16.3	16.3	16.3	16.2	16.2	16.2	16+	16+	16+
Managers, officials, and proprietors	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.4	12.2	12.2
Farmers and farm laborers	9.3	9.1	8.9	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.6	8.5	8.3	8.0
Farmers and farm managers	(2)	(2)	9.1	8.9	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.7	8.6	8.5	8.2
Farm laborers and foremen	(2)	(2)	8.6	8.6	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.3	8.2	7.5	7.6
Clerical and sales workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.4	12.4
Clerical workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	(2)
Sales workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.4	12.3	(2)
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers	11.4	11.2	11.1	11.0	10.8	10.7	10.4	10.0	9.7	9.2	9.0
Craftsmen and foremen	12.1	12.0	12.0	11.9	11.7	11.5	11.2	11.0	10.5	10.1	9.7
Operatives	11.1	11.0	10.8	10.7	10.6	10.5	10.1	9.9	9.5	9.1	9.1
Nonfarm laborers	10.0	9.8	9.5	9.5	9.5	9.3	8.9	8.6	8.5	8.3	8.0
Service workers	11.3	11.1	11.0	10.9	10.8	10.5	10.2	9.7	9.0	8.8	8.7
Private household workers	(2)	(2)	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.7	8.4	8.3	8.1	(2)
Other service workers	(2)	(2)	11.5	11.4	11.3	11.0	10.8	10.3	9.6	9.2	(2)
MALE											
All occupation groups	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.2	12.2	12.1	12.1	11.7	11.2	10.4	10.2
Professional and managerial workers	14.6	14.5	14.4	14.3	13.9	13.6	13.5	13.2	12.9	12.8	12.6
Professional and technical workers	16.4	16.4	16.3	16.4	16.4	16.2	16.4	16.4	16+	16+	16+
Managers, officials, and proprietors	12.8	12.8	12.7	12.7	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.4	12.4	12.2	12.2
Farmers and farm laborers	9.0	8.9	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.6	8.4	8.4	8.2
Farmers and farm managers	9.8	9.7	9.1	8.9	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.7	8.6	8.5	8.3
Farm laborers and foremen	8.4	8.3	8.2	7.9	8.0	8.2	8.3	7.7	7.4	7.2	7.8
Clerical and sales workers	12.7	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.4
Clerical workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.4	(2)
Sales workers	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.6	12.5	12.5	(2)
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers	11.6	11.3	11.2	11.1	11.0	10.8	10.4	10.1	9.7	9.1	9.0
Craftsmen and foremen	12.1	12.0	12.0	11.8	11.7	11.5	11.2	11.0	10.5	10.1	9.7
Operatives	11.3	11.1	11.0	10.9	10.8	10.7	10.2	10.0	9.6	9.0	9.1
Nonfarm laborers	10.0	9.8	9.5	9.4	9.5	9.3	8.9	8.5	8.5	8.3	8.0
Service workers	11.7	11.6	11.4	11.3	11.1	10.6	10.3	10.1	(2)	(3)	9.0
Private household workers	(2)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(4)	(4)	(2)
Other service workers	(2)	(2)	11.5	11.3	11.2	10.6	10.4	10.1	9.0	8.8	(2)
FEMALE											
All occupation groups	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.2	12.1	12.0	11.7
Professional and managerial workers	15.5	15.5	15.3	15.3	15.0	15.0	14.7	14.0	14.4	14.0	13.7
Professional and technical workers	16.2	16.2	16.2	16.2	16.2	16.1	16.1	15.9	16+	16+	15.9
Managers, officials, and proprietors	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.5	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.2	12.3	12.2	12.1
Farmers and farm laborers	11.3	10.8	10.7	10.2	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.7	(3)	8.0	7.4
Farmers and farm managers	(2)	(2)	(3)	9.6	9.0	9.1	9.0	8.5	(4)	8.5	7.8
Farm laborers and foremen	(2)	(2)	10.7	10.4	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.8	8.7	7.9	7.3
Clerical and sales workers	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.4
Clerical workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	(2)
Sales workers	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.1	12.2	12.0	12.1	(2)
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers	10.9	10.7	10.6	10.5	10.2	10.1	10.0	9.8	(3)	9.4	9.1
Craftsmen and foremen	12.2	12.1	11.5	12.1	11.8	11.2	9.2	11.2	11.3	11.5	10.4
Operatives	10.7	10.6	10.5	10.4	10.1	10.0	9.9	9.7	9.3	9.3	9.0
Nonfarm laborers	10.9	10.7	(3)	(3)	9.6	(3)	10.0	(3)	(4)	8.5	(4)
Service workers	11.2	10.9	10.8	10.7	10.6	10.4	10.2	9.5	9.0	8.8	8.5
Private household workers	8.9	8.8	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.7	8.4	8.3	8.1	(2)
Other service workers	11.9	11.6	11.5	11.5	11.4	11.2	11.1	10.5	10.2	9.7	(2)

Footnotes at end of table.

Table B–12. Median Years of School Completed by the Employed Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex, Occupation Group, and Color, Selected Dates, 1948–69—Continued

Sex and occupation group	White[1]							
	March 1969	March 1968	March 1967	March 1966	March 1965	March 1964	March 1962	March 1959
BOTH SEXES								
All occupation groups	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.2	12.1
Professional and managerial workers	14.8	14.7	14.6	14.5	14.1	14.0	13.9	13.4
Professional and technical workers	16.2	16.5	16.2	16.3	16.3	16.1	16.2	16.2
Managers, officials, and proprietors	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.4
Farmers and farm laborers	9.8	9.7	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.7
Farmers and farm managers	(2)	(2)	9.3	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.8
Farm laborers and foremen	(2)	(2)	8.9	9.1	8.7	8.7	8.8	8.6
Clerical and sales workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5
Clerical workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5
Sales workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers	11.6	11.4	11.2	11.1	11.0	10.8	10.6	10.3
Craftsmen and foremen	(2)	(2)	12.0	11.9	11.8	11.6	11.3	11.0
Operatives	(2)	(2)	10.9	10.8	10.7	10.6	10.2	10.1
Nonfarm laborers	(2)	(2)	10.0	10.0	9.9	9.9	9.4	9.0
Service workers	12.0	12.8	11.5	11.4	11.3	11.0	10.7	10.1
Private household workers	(2)	(2)	9.8	9.3	8.9	9.1	8.9	8.7
Other service workers	(2)	(2)	11.7	11.7	11.6	11.3	11.0	10.5
MALE								
All occupation groups	12.4	12.4	12.3	12.3	12.2	12.2	12.1	12.0
Professional and managerial workers	14.6	14.5	14.4	14.3	13.9	13.6	13.5	13.2
Professional and technical workers	16.5	16.5	16.3	16.4	16.4	16.4	16.4	16.4
Managers, officials, and proprietors	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.7	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.4
Farmers and farm laborers	9.4	9.4	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.7
Farmers and farm managers	10.0	10.0	9.3	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.8
Farm laborers and foremen	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.4	8.5	8.7	8.3
Clerical and sales workers	12.7	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.5
Clerical workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5
Sales workers	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.6
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers	11.8	11.6	11.4	11.3	11.2	11.0	10.7	10.4
Craftsmen and foremen	12.1	12.0	12.0	11.9	11.8	11.6	11.3	11.0
Operatives	11.4	11.3	11.1	11.1	11.0	10.8	10.4	10.2
Nonfarm laborers	10.5	10.1	9.9	10.0	9.9	9.8	9.4	9.0
Service workers	12.0	12.0	11.8	11.6	11.5	11.2	10.7	10.2
Private household workers	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Other service workers	(2)	(2)	11.9	11.6	11.6	11.3	10.7	10.3
FEMALE								
All occupation groups	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.3	12.3	12.3
Professional and managerial workers	15.4	15.4	15.1	15.1	14.8	15.0	14.6	14.0
Professional and technical workers	16.4	16.4	16.1	16.2	16.1	16.2	16.0	15.8
Managers, officials, and proprietors	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.3
Farmers and farm laborers	11.4	11.2	11.2	10.8	9.5	9.4	9.3	8.9
Farmers and farm managers	(2)	(2)	(2)	9.9	9.5	9.8	9.5	8.5
Farm laborers and foremen	(2)	(2)	11.4	10.9	9.4	9.3	9.2	9.0
Clerical and sales workers	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4
Clerical workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5
Sales workers	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.1	12.2
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers	10.8	10.7	10.5	10.5	10.2	10.0	9.9	9.8
Craftsmen and foremen	(2)	(2)	11.4	12.0	11.7	11.2	11.1	11.1
Operatives	(2)	(2)	10.4	10.3	10.1	9.9	9.8	9.8
Nonfarm laborers	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Service workers	11.9	11.4	11.3	11.2	11.1	10.9	10.7	10.0
Private household workers	9.8	9.5	9.9	9.4	8.9	9.1	8.9	8.7
Other service workers	12.0	11.8	11.6	11.7	11.6	11.3	11.3	10.6

Footnotes at end of table.

Table B–12. Median Years of School Completed by the Employed Civilian Labor Force 18 Years and Over, by Sex, Occupation Group, and Color, Selected Dates, 1948–69—Continued

Sex and occupation group	Negro and other races[5]							
	March 1969	March 1968	March 1967	March 1966	March 1965	March 1964	March 1962	March 1959
BOTH SEXES								
All occupation groups	11.3	11.1	10.8	10.5	10.5	10.1	9.6	8.6
Professional and managerial workers	15.7	16.1	16.0	16.1	16.1	15.4	14.7	15.1
Professional and technical workers	(2)	(2)	16.3	16.5	16.5	16.2	16.2	16.2
Managers, officials, and proprietors	(2)	(2)	12.2	12.4	11.8	10.7	11.0	8.4
Farmers and farm laborers	6.7	6.6	6.2	5.9	5.5	6.1	5.9	5.5
Farmers and farm managers	(2)	(2)	6.7	(3)	5.9	5.9	5.6	5.2
Farm laborers and foremen	(2)	(2)	6.0	5.8	5.3	6.2	6.0	5.7
Clerical and sales workers	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.6	12.5	12.4	12.5
Clerical workers	(2)	(2)	12.5	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5
Sales workers	(2)	(2)	12.3	12.2	12.3	12.2	12.0	(3)
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers	10.4	10.2	9.9	9.6	9.7	9.6	8.8	8.2
Craftsmen and foremen	(2)	(2)	10.2	10.5	10.4	10.6	9.0	9.3
Operatives	(2)	(2)	10.4	10.1	10.2	10.1	9.3	8.7
Nonfarm laborers	(2)	(2)	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.4	8.1	6.8
Service workers	9.8	9.8	9.3	9.7	9.8	9.3	9.2	8.8
Private household workers	(2)	(2)	8.5	8.6	8.9	8.6	8.3	7.8
Other service workers	(2)	(2)	10.7	10.6	10.4	10.0	10.2	9.8
MALE								
All occupation groups	10.8	10.7	10.3	10.0	10.1	9.7	9.0	8.2
Professional and managerial workers	15.0	15.4	14.6	15.7	16.0	15.4	12.8	14.8
Professional and technical workers	16.6	16.5	16.2	16.6	16.6	16.5	16.2	16.2
Managers, officials, and proprietors	12.4	12.3	12.1	12.1	11.5	11.0	10.7	(3)
Farmers and farm laborers	6.3	6.1	6.1	5.6	5.2	5.9	5.6	5.3
Farmers and farm managers	(6)	(2)	6.6	(3)	5.8	5.3	5.2	5.0
Farm laborers and foremen	6.4	(2)	5.8	5.5	(3)	6.2	5.7	5.5
Clerical and sales workers	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.5	12.5	12.3	12.4	12.4
Clerical workers	(2)	(2)	12.4	12.4	12.6	12.4	12.4	12.4
Sales workers	(2)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers	10.2	10.0	9.5	9.4	9.6	9.4	8.6	7.9
Craftsmen and foremen	11.0	10.5	10.1	10.2	10.3	10.5	8.9	9.2
Operatives	10.6	10.4	10.0	9.9	10.0	10.0	8.9	8.4
Nonfarm laborers	8.8	8.9	8.6	8.5	8.6	8.3	8.1	6.7
Service workers	10.2	10.3	10.3	10.2	10.0	8.9	9.4	9.6
Private household workers	(2)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Other service workers	(2)	(2)	10.3	10.2	10.0	8.9	9.6	9.6
FEMALE								
All occupation groups	11.9	11.8	11.6	11.2	11.2	10.8	10.5	9.4
Professional and managerial workers	16.2	16.5	16.3	16.3	16.3	15.5	16.2	15.6
Professional and technical workers	(3)	(2)	16.4	16.4	16.4	16.1	16.3	16.2
Managers, officials, and proprietors	(3)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Farmers and farm laborers	(6)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Farmers and farm managers	(3)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Farm laborers and foremen	(3)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Clerical and sales workers	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5
Clerical workers	(2)	(2)	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.7	12.5	12.6
Sales workers	(3)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers	11.2	11.2	11.1	10.9	10.6	10.7	10.0	9.5
Craftsmen and foremen	(3)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Operatives	(2)	(2)	11.1	10.7	10.6	10.5	10.0	9.4
Nonfarm laborers	(2)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Service workers	9.7	9.6	9.6	9.5	9.7	9.5	9.2	8.6
Private household workers	8.4	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.9	8.6	8.3	7.8
Other service workers	10.9	11.0	11.0	10.8	10.7	10.8	10.7	10.0

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[1] Data for 1948 do not include persons 65 years and over.
[2] Not available.
[3] Median not shown where base is less than 100,000.
[4] Median not shown where base is less than 150,000.
[5] Data by color not available prior to 1959.
[6] Median not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Table B–13. Persons With Work Experience During the Year, by Extent of Employment and by Sex, 1950–68

[Persons 14 years and over for 1950-66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward]

Sex and year	Number who worked during year (thousands) [1]									Percent distribution								
	Total	Full time [2]				Part time				Total	Full time [2]				Part time			
		Total	50 to 52 weeks	27 to 49 weeks	1 to 26 weeks	Total	50 to 52 weeks	27 to 49 weeks	1 to 26 weeks		Total	50 to 52 weeks	27 to 49 weeks	1 to 26 weeks	Total	50 to 52 weeks	27 to 49 weeks	1 to 26 weeks
BOTH SEXES																		
1950	68,876	58,181	38,375	11,795	8,013	10,695	3,322	2,214	5,162	100.0	84.5	55.7	17.1	11.6	15.5	4.8	3.2	7.5
1951	69,962	59,544	40,142	12,018	7,384	10,418	3,144	2,240	5,034	100.0	85.1	57.4	17.2	10.6	14.9	4.5	3.2	7.2
1952	70,512	60,294	40,486	12,374	7,434	10,218	3,092	2,294	4,832	100.0	85.5	57.4	17.5	10.5	14.5	4.4	3.3	6.9
1953	70,682	60,532	41,601	12,003	6,928	10,150	3,270	2,333	4,547	100.0	85.6	58.9	17.0	9.8	14.4	4.6	3.3	6.4
1954	71,797	60,059	40,080	12,025	7,954	11,738	3,701	2,663	5,374	100.0	83.7	55.8	16.7	11.1	16.3	5.2	3.7	7.5
1955	75,353	62,581	42,624	11,952	8,005	12,772	4,773	2,573	5,426	100.0	83.1	56.6	15.9	10.6	16.9	6.3	3.4	7.2
1956	75,852	62,437	42,778	11,791	7,868	13,415	4,760	2,693	5,962	100.0	82.3	56.4	15.5	10.4	17.7	6.3	3.6	7.9
1957	77,664	62,874	42,813	11,981	8,075	14,790	4,989	2,872	6,929	100.0	81.0	55.1	15.4	10.4	19.0	6.4	3.7	8.9
1958	77,117	61,676	41,329	11,546	8,799	15,441	5,402	3,025	7,014	100.0	80.0	53.6	15.0	11.4	20.0	7.0	3.9	9.1
1959	78,162	63,004	42,030	12,515	8,459	15,158	5,173	3,104	6,881	100.0	80.6	53.8	16.0	10.8	19.4	6.6	4.0	8.8
1960	80,618	64,153	43,265	12,132	8,756	16,465	5,307	3,290	7,868	100.0	79.6	53.7	15.0	10.9	20.4	6.6	4.1	9.8
1961	80,287	64,218	43,006	12,042	9,170	16,069	5,191	3,068	7,810	100.0	80.0	53.6	15.0	11.4	20.0	6.5	3.8	9.7
1962	82,057	65,327	44,079	12,102	9,146	16,730	5,130	3,368	8,232	100.0	79.6	53.7	14.7	11.1	20.4	6.3	4.1	10.0
1963	83,227	66,157	45,449	11,565	9,153	17,060	5,229	3,353	8,478	100.0	79.5	54.6	13.9	11.0	20.5	6.3	4.0	10.2
1964	85,124	67,825	46,846	11,691	9,288	17,299	5,268	3,374	8,657	100.0	79.6	55.0	13.7	10.9	20.3	6.2	4.0	10.2
1965	86,186	68,697	48,392	11,171	9,134	17,489	5,418	3,268	8,803	100.0	79.7	56.1	13.0	10.6	20.3	6.3	3.8	10.2
1966	88,553	70,449	50,081	10,654	9,714	18,104	4,854	3,587	8,663	100.0	79.6	56.6	12.0	11.0	20.4	6.6	4.0	9.8
1966 [3]	86,266	70,140	50,049	10,647	9,444	16,126	5,407	3,380	7,339	100.0	81.3	58.0	12.3	10.9	18.7	6.3	3.9	8.5
1967	88,179	71,909	51,705	10,702	9,502	16,270	5,641	3,430	7,199	100.0	81.5	58.6	12.1	10.8	18.5	6.4	3.9	8.2
1968	90,230	73,266	52,285	11,115	9,866	16,964	5,769	3,720	7,475	100.0	81.2	57.9	12.3	10.9	18.8	6.4	4.1	8.3
MALE																		
1950	45,526	41,042	29,783	7,624	3,636	4,484	1,406	1,004	2,074	100.0	90.2	65.4	16.7	8.0	9.8	3.1	2.2	4.6
1951	45,364	41,338	30,894	7,518	2,926	4,026	1,310	918	1,798	100.0	91.1	68.1	16.6	6.4	8.9	2.9	2.0	4.0
1952	45,704	41,816	30,878	7,922	3,016	3,888	1,178	896	1,814	100.0	91.5	67.6	17.3	6.6	8.5	2.6	2.0	4.0
1953	46,146	42,059	31,902	7,317	2,840	4,087	1,341	1,055	1,691	100.0	91.1	69.1	15.9	6.2	8.9	2.9	2.3	3.7
1954	46,318	41,404	30,389	7,567	3,448	4,914	1,552	1,227	2,135	100.0	89.4	65.6	16.3	7.4	10.6	3.4	2.6	4.6
1955	47,624	42,814	32,127	7,356	3,331	4,810	1,930	1,066	1,814	100.0	89.9	67.5	15.5	7.0	10.1	4.1	2.2	3.8
1956	47,904	42,704	32,342	7,218	3,144	5,200	1,920	1,074	2,206	100.0	89.1	67.5	15.1	6.6	10.9	4.0	2.2	4.6
1957	48,709	42,886	32,089	7,350	3,447	5,823	2,135	1,115	2,573	100.0	88.0	65.9	15.1	7.1	12.0	4.4	2.3	5.3
1958	48,380	42,052	30,727	7,233	4,091	6,328	2,348	1,259	2,721	100.0	86.9	63.5	15.0	8.5	13.1	4.9	2.6	5.6
1959	48,973	42,997	31,502	7,830	3,665	5,976	2,211	1,224	2,541	100.0	87.8	64.3	16.0	7.5	12.2	4.5	2.5	5.2
1960	50,033	43,476	31,966	7,653	3,857	6,557	2,247	1,267	3,043	100.0	86.9	63.9	15.3	7.7	13.1	4.5	2.5	6.1
1961	49,854	43,467	31,769	7,434	4,264	6,387	2,240	1,163	2,984	100.0	87.2	63.7	14.9	8.6	12.8	4.5	2.3	6.0
1962	50,639	43,987	32,513	7,185	4,289	6,652	2,114	1,305	3,233	100.0	86.9	64.2	14.2	8.5	13.1	4.2	2.6	6.4
1963	51,039	44,294	33,587	6,686	4,021	6,745	2,098	1,274	3,373	100.0	86.8	65.8	13.1	7.9	13.2	4.1	2.5	6.6
1964	51,978	45,313	34,428	6,723	4,162	6,665	2,164	1,220	3,281	100.0	87.1	66.2	12.9	8.0	12.8	4.2	2.3	6.3
1965	52,419	45,552	35,300	6,306	3,946	6,867	2,326	1,197	3,344	100.0	86.9	67.3	12.0	7.5	13.1	4.4	2.3	6.4
1966	53,108	46,127	36,222	5,808	4,098	6,981	2,418	1,261	3,302	100.0	86.9	68.2	10.9	7.7	13.1	4.6	2.4	6.2
1966 [3]	51,708	45,909	36,191	5,802	3,916	5,799	2,091	1,162	2,546	100.0	88.8	70.0	11.2	7.6	11.2	4.0	2.2	4.9
1967	52,392	46,658	36,621	6,051	3,986	5,734	2,096	1,202	2,436	100.0	89.1	69.9	11.5	7.6	10.9	4.0	2.3	4.6
1968	53,312	47,313	37,014	6,111	4,188	5,999	2,237	1,227	2,535	100.0	88.7	69.4	11.5	7.9	11.3	4.2	2.3	4.8
FEMALE																		
1950	23,350	17,139	8,592	4,171	4,377	6,211	1,916	1,210	3,088	100.0	73.4	36.8	17.9	18.7	26.6	8.2	5.1	13.2
1951	24,598	18,206	9,248	4,500	4,458	6,392	1,834	1,322	3,236	100.0	74.0	37.6	18.3	18.1	26.0	7.5	5.4	13.2
1952	24,808	18,478	9,608	4,452	4,418	6,330	1,914	1,398	3,018	100.0	74.5	38.7	17.9	17.8	25.5	7.7	5.6	12.2
1953	24,536	18,473	9,699	4,686	4,088	6,063	1,929	1,278	2,856	100.0	75.3	39.5	19.1	16.7	24.7	7.9	5.2	11.6
1954	25,479	18,655	9,691	4,458	4,506	6,824	2,149	1,436	3,239	100.0	73.2	38.0	17.5	17.7	26.8	8.4	5.6	12.7
1955	27,729	19,767	10,497	4,596	4,674	7,962	2,843	1,507	3,612	100.0	71.3	37.9	16.5	16.9	28.7	10.3	5.4	13.0
1956	27,948	19,733	10,436	4,573	4,724	8,215	2,840	1,619	3,756	100.0	70.6	37.3	16.4	16.9	29.4	10.2	5.8	13.4
1957	28,955	19,988	10,729	4,631	4,628	8,967	2,854	1,757	4,356	100.0	69.0	37.0	16.0	16.0	31.0	9.9	6.1	15.0
1958	28,736	19,623	10,602	4,313	4,708	9,113	3,054	1,766	4,293	100.0	68.3	36.9	15.0	16.4	31.7	10.6	6.1	14.9
1959	29,189	20,007	10,528	4,685	4,794	9,182	2,962	1,880	4,340	100.0	68.5	36.1	16.1	16.4	31.5	10.1	6.4	14.9
1960	30,585	20,677	11,299	4,479	4,899	9,908	3,060	2,023	4,825	100.0	67.6	36.9	14.6	16.0	32.4	10.0	6.6	15.8
1961	30,433	20,751	11,237	4,608	4,906	9,682	2,951	1,905	4,826	100.0	68.2	36.9	15.1	16.1	31.8	9.7	6.3	15.9
1962	31,418	21,340	11,566	4,917	4,857	10,078	3,016	2,063	4,999	100.0	67.9	36.8	15.6	15.5	32.1	9.6	6.6	15.9
1963	32,188	21,873	11,862	4,879	5,132	10,315	3,131	2,079	5,105	100.0	68.0	36.9	15.2	15.9	32.0	9.7	6.5	15.9
1964	33,146	22,512	12,418	4,968	5,126	10,634	3,104	2,154	5,376	100.0	68.0	37.5	15.0	15.5	32.1	9.4	6.5	16.2
1965	33,767	23,145	13,092	4,865	5,188	10,622	3,092	2,071	5,459	100.0	68.5	38.8	14.4	15.4	31.5	9.2	6.1	16.2
1966	35,444	24,321	13,859	4,846	5,616	11,123	3,436	2,326	5,361	100.0	68.6	39.1	13.7	15.8	31.4	9.7	6.6	15.1
1966 [3]	34,558	24,231	13,858	4,845	5,528	10,327	3,316	2,218	4,793	100.0	70.1	40.1	14.0	16.0	29.9	9.6	6.4	13.9
1967	35,787	25,251	15,084	4,651	5,516	10,536	3,545	2,228	4,763	100.0	70.6	42.1	13.0	15.4	29.4	9.9	6.2	13.3
1968	36,918	25,953	15,271	5,004	5,678	10,965	3,532	2,493	4,940	100.0	70.3	41.4	13.6	15.4	29.7	9.6	6.8	13.4

[1] Time worked includes paid vacation and paid sick leave.

[2] Usually worked 35 hours or more a week.

[3] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

Table B–14. Persons With Work Experience During the Year, by Industry Group and Class of Worker of Longest Job, 1957–68 [1]

[Thousands of persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward]

Industry group and class of worker	1968	1967	1966 [2]	1966 [3]	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
All industry groups	90, 230	88, 179	86, 266	88, 553	86, 186	85, 124	83, 227	82, 057	80, 287	80, 618	78, 162	77, 117	77, 664
Agriculture	4, 936	5, 184	5, 021	5, 604	6, 348	7, 051	6, 796	7, 179	7, 502	7, 902	7, 924	8, 291	8, 355
Wage and salary workers	2, 034	2, 150	2, 079	2, 435	2, 622	2, 695	2, 725	2, 794	2, 780	2, 667	2, 752	2, 771	2, 469
Self-employed workers	2, 036	2, 083	2, 098	2, 132	2, 442	2, 496	2, 396	2, 601	2, 836	3, 012	2, 992	3, 141	3, 358
Unpaid family workers	866	951	844	1, 037	1, 284	1, 860	1, 675	1, 784	1, 886	2, 223	2, 180	2, 379	2, 528
Nonagricultural industries	85, 294	82, 995	81, 245	82, 949	79, 838	78, 073	76, 431	74, 878	72, 785	72, 716	70, 238	68, 826	69, 308
Wage and salary workers	78, 737	76, 629	75, 038	76, 562	72, 492	70, 331	68, 444	67, 006	64, 534	64, 549	62, 439	61, 077	61, 767
Forestry and fisheries	83	100	100	103	114	116	115	121	107	85	105	118	795
Mining	548	560	602	602	573	587	569	639	673	626	684	650	
Construction	4, 675	4, 519	4, 538	4, 578	4, 556	4, 501	4, 216	4, 235	4, 096	4, 042	4, 099	4, 277	4, 022
Manufacturing	22, 819	22, 532	22, 248	22, 477	21, 297	20, 364	20, 076	19, 533	18, 255	18, 815	18, 941	17, 864	19, 409
Durable goods	13, 258	13, 086	12, 788	12, 807	11, 928	11, 475	11, 285	10, 934	10, 043	10, 532	10, 522	10, 034	11, 112
Lumber and wood products	637	639	651	655	614	636	613	574	550	536	608	658	(4)
Furniture and fixtures	472	454	492	494	528	460	470	458	389	383	427	394	(4)
Stone, clay, and glass products	720	689	710	710	720	632	562	576	531	596	508	505	(4)
Primary metal industries	1, 403	1, 329	1, 409	1, 411	1, 385	1, 334	1, 308	1, 168	1, 098	1, 260	1, 294	1, 123	(4)
Fabricated metal products	1, 768	1, 751	1, 648	1, 650	1, 455	1, 533	1, 635	1, 527	1, 409	1, 189	1, 185	1, 195	(4)
Machinery	2, 352	2, 358	2, 223	2, 225	2, 014	1, 973	1, 775	1, 840	1, 719	1, 765	1, 661	1, 575	(4)
Electrical equipment	2, 197	2, 261	2, 142	2, 142	1, 917	1, 670	1, 799	1, 814	1, 588	1, 524	1, 509	1, 278	(4)
Transportation equipment	2, 647	2, 482	2, 412	2, 415	2, 280	2, 139	2, 077	1, 960	1, 759	2, 303	2, 424	2, 364	(4)
Automobiles	1, 186	1, 070	1, 133	1, 136	1, 085	1, 005	949	928	881	1, 018	1, 050	1, 033	(4)
Other transportation equipment	1, 461	1, 412	1, 279	1, 279	1, 195	1, 134	1, 128	1, 032	878	1, 284	1, 374	1, 331	(4)
Other durable goods	1, 062	1, 123	1, 101	1, 105	1, 015	1, 098	1, 046	1, 017	1, 000	976	908	942	(4)
Nondurable goods	9, 561	9, 446	9, 460	9, 670	9, 369	8, 889	8, 791	8, 599	8, 212	8, 283	8, 419	7, 830	8, 297
Food and kindred products	2, 134	2, 162	2, 122	2, 140	2, 134	2, 093	2, 117	2, 133	2, 028	1, 909	1, 892	1, 697	(4)
Textile mill products	1, 224	1, 165	1, 158	1, 162	1, 169	1, 109	1, 082	959	911	1, 064	1, 135	1, 088	(4)
Apparel and related products	1, 523	1, 517	1, 639	1, 640	1, 625	1, 558	1, 466	1, 487	1, 327	1, 378	1, 414	1, 288	(4)
Printing and publishing	1, 236	1, 226	1, 318	1, 503	1, 458	1, 258	1, 387	1, 332	1, 289	1, 307	1, 256	1, 238	(4)
Chemicals and allied products	1, 201	1, 223	1, 213	1, 214	1, 014	1, 063	1, 004	949	984	882	964	964	(4)
Other nondurable goods	2, 243	2, 153	2, 010	2, 011	1, 969	1, 808	1, 735	1, 739	1, 673	1, 743	1, 758	1, 555	(4)
Transportation and public utilities	5, 312	5, 327	4, 993	5, 011	4, 856	4, 843	4, 916	4, 711	4, 518	4, 768	4, 865	4, 657	4, 887
Railroads and railway express	700	811	849	852	812	896	910	932	925	975	1, 042	1, 118	(4)
Other transportation	2, 240	2, 193	1, 914	1, 925	1, 894	1, 916	1, 920	1, 810	1, 590	1, 764	1, 788	1, 692	(4)
Communications	1, 205	1, 136	1, 101	1, 102	1, 016	913	922	860	912	944	919	844	(4)
Other public utilities	1, 167	1, 187	1, 129	1, 132	1, 134	1, 118	1, 164	1, 109	1, 091	1, 084	1, 116	1, 003	(4)
Wholesale and retail trade	15, 319	15, 307	15, 027	15, 339	14, 293	14, 012	13, 358	13, 462	13, 033	13, 040	12, 525	12, 638	12, 407
Wholesale trade	2, 623	2, 672	2, 551	2, 579	2, 586	2, 388	2, 260	2, 337	2, 458	2, 482	2, 394	2, 381	(4)
Retail trade	12, 696	12, 635	12, 476	12, 760	11, 707	11, 624	11, 098	11, 125	10, 575	10, 558	10, 131	10, 257	(4)
Finance and service	24, 993	23, 775	23, 142	24, 058	22, 779	21, 872	21, 151	20, 387	20, 126	19, 501	17, 807	17, 530	16, 929
Finance, insurance, real estate	3, 687	3, 605	3, 606	3, 617	3, 476	3, 331	3, 264	3, 052	3, 081	3, 171	2, 797	2, 568	(4)
Business and repair services	2, 057	1, 944	1, 783	1, 811	1, 746	1, 667	1, 647	1, 646	1, 471	1, 468	1, 390	1, 359	(4)
Private households	2, 755	2, 756	2, 949	3, 623	3, 847	3, 849	3, 772	3, 916	3, 964	3, 692	3, 522	3, 507	3, 370
Personal services, exc. private households	2, 281	2, 226	2, 093	2, 114	2, 146	2, 173	2, 018	1, 895	2, 145	2, 058	1, 794	1, 913	(4)
Entertainment and recreation services	915	932	875	950	807	768	848	795	852	759	701	792	(4)
Medical and other health services	4, 517	3; 985	3, 958	3, 984	3, 608	3, 393	3, 287	3, 092	2, 915	2, 878	2, 686	2, 445	(4)
Welfare and religious services	915	806	814	827	754	825	790	783	736	729	609	717	(4)
Educational services	6, 656	6, 349	5, 952	6, 008	5, 318	4, 808	4, 556	4, 325	4, 101	3, 781	3, 443	3, 432	(4)
Other professional services	1, 210	1, 172	1, 112	1, 124	1, 077	1, 058	969	883	861	964	865	797	(4)
Public administration	4, 988	4, 509	4, 388	4, 394	4, 024	4, 036	4, 043	3, 918	3, 726	3, 671	3, 413	3, 343	3, 318
Self-employed workers	5, 533	5, 333	5, 590	5, 734	6, 640	6, 614	6, 790	6, 782	7, 170	6, 971	6, 748	6, 672	6, 587
Unpaid family workers	1, 024	1, 033	617	653	706	1, 128	1, 197	1, 090	1, 081	1, 196	1, 051	1, 077	954

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[1] Data for 1955–56 appeared in the *1967 Manpower Report*.

[2] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967. See also footnote 3.

[3] The estimates for 1966 forward are not strictly comparable with those of prior years aside from the age difference because of earlier misclassification of some wage and salary workers as self-employed. The change in classification resulted in a shift of about 750,000 in 1966 from nonfarm self-employment to wage and salary employment, affecting primarily the data for trade and service industries.

[4] Not available.

Table B–15. Percent of Persons With Work Experience During the Year Who Worked Year Round at Full-Time Jobs, by Industry Group and Class of Worker of Longest Job, 1957–68[1]

[Percent of persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward]

Industry group and class of worker	1968	1967	1966[2]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
All industry groups	57.9	58.6	58.0	56.6	56.1	55.0	54.6	53.7	53.6	53.7	53.8	53.6	55.1
Agriculture	46.1	46.4	47.4	42.8	40.4	37.7	37.6	37.9	40.9	38.9	39.3	39.4	41.5
Wage and salary workers	28.4	30.0	30.8	26.6	23.0	22.0	22.5	21.2	23.8	22.9	21.9	20.9	23.0
Self-employed workers	75.3	75.8	75.3	74.1	72.4	73.6	72.7	72.5	74.8	71.1	74.8	74.9	77.1
Unpaid family workers	18.8	18.9	18.7	16.7	15.1	12.3	11.8	13.5	15.3	14.4	13.7	14.3	12.3
Nonagricultural industries	58.6	59.4	58.7	57.5	57.4	56.6	56.1	55.2	54.9	55.3	55.4	55.3	56.8
Wage and salary workers	58.7	59.5	58.5	57.3	57.2	6.3	55.8	54.9	54.6	54.8	54.7	54.6	56.1
Forestry and fisheries	50.6	52.0	53.0	52.4	33.3	44.0	32.2	45.5	29.0	(3)	41.9	50.0	64.7
Mining	70.8	70.5	73.6	73.6	68.8	67.5	68.2	67.6	64.8	65.2	58.7	58.2	
Construction	55.2	55.6	53.9	53.5	51.5	48.8	45.8	43.2	41.5	41.8	43.6	40.6	45.7
Manufacturing	69.5	69.7	69.6	68.9	69.2	67.7	67.1	64.8	63.7	64.3	62.5	62.3	63.3
Durable goods	72.3	71.8	72.4	72.3	72.4	70.7	70.7	67.6	65.9	66.0	62.9	62.4	66.4
Lumber and wood products	61.5	55.7	59.6	59.2	52.9	52.8	50.1	50.3	46.9	48.3	55.3	49.5	(4)
Furniture and fixtures	69.7	68.5	70.5	70.2	70.8	67.0	65.7	64.8	63.5	58.7	65.0	52.8	(4)
Stone, clay, and glass products	71.2	72.0	73.8	73.8	72.8	72.9	72.4	62.0	64.0	63.4	66.0	63.4	(4)
Primary metal industries	71.8	77.8	76.5	76.4	77.3	80.1	73.9	69.1	67.8	63.5	47.8	65.4	(4)
Fabricated metal products	71.9	72.9	72.9	72.8	72.5	70.4	71.1	71.0	68.6	71.6	68.4	69.3	(4)
Machinery	76.2	75.8	77.8	77.8	77.9	76.6	76.3	73.3	73.7	73.0	72.4	66.5	(4)
Electrical equipment	72.7	69.8	67.7	67.7	70.7	73.5	70.5	70.1	71.3	69.6	69.1	68.2	(4)
Transportation equipment	75.2	72.0	74.1	74.0	72.3	67.7	75.2	70.1	61.0	65.4	61.5	58.6	(4)
Automobiles	71.7	64.5	68.8	68.6	69.8	58.1	70.8	67.8	52.3	54.6	44.9	39.0	(4)
Other transportation equipment	78.1	77.6	78.9	78.9	74.6	76.3	78.8	72.2	69.7	74.0	74.2	73.9	(4)
Other durable goods	65.3	68.4	68.1	67.9	70.3	60.7	61.9	55.7	58.8	59.6	56.2	57.9	(4)
Nondurable goods	65.6	66.8	65.8	64.4	65.0	63.8	62.4	61.3	61.1	62.1	62.0	62.0	59.2
Food and kindred products	63.4	64.6	64.8	64.3	64.9	64.0	63.2	61.3	58.4	61.4	61.0	60.5	(4)
Textile mill products	66.4	66.3	69.9	69.6	69.4	65.7	64.2	59.0	59.2	62.5	63.2	58.4	(4)
Apparel and related products	55.4	52.9	49.2	49.2	50.2	47.1	45.4	44.0	44.8	38.6	44.5	43.9	(4)
Printing and publishing	62.1	66.9	61.1	53.6	55.0	54.3	52.2	51.4	54.5	60.1	57.7	59.5	(4)
Chemicals and allied products	76.9	79.9	79.9	79.8	78.5	79.3	76.6	77.1	79.4	82.2	74.6	79.1	(4)
Other nondurable goods	70.0	71.8	72.6	72.6	75.4	74.3	74.6	76.3	72.7	72.6	72.4	72.6	(4)
Transportation and public utilities	73.2	75.5	75.7	75.5	75.8	75.4	72.8	72.2	73.2	71.7	71.4	72.0	72.2
Railroads and railway express	80.9	80.8	83.6	83.4	82.5	78.6	77.3	73.3	77.0	73.5	74.1	75.1	(4)
Other transportation	68.7	69.1	67.6	67.2	65.9	66.8	64.1	63.4	62.8	62.8	64.1	60.0	(4)
Communications	67.4	74.5	74.0	74.0	78.0	78.0	73.8	77.7	76.1	74.5	71.1	77.1	(4)
Other public utilities	83.4	84.8	85.1	84.9	85.4	85.3	82.7	81.4	82.5	81.9	80.6	84.5	(4)
Wholesale and retail trade	47.5	47.9	47.1	46.2	47.8	46.8	46.5	47.5	48.4	47.0	48.3	49.2	49.5
Wholesale trade	70.9	70.5	70.6	69.9	72.3	70.8	68.1	67.1	70.1	66.2	64.1	66.6	(4)
Retail trade	42.6	43.1	42.3	41.4	42.4	41.8	42.2	43.4	43.3	42.5	44.5	45.2	(4)
Finance and service	49.4	50.9	48.6	46.8	45.3	44.5	44.4	43.9	44.3	45.3	44.5	44.7	46.0
Finance, insurance, real estate	67.7	70.0	68.8	68.6	69.7	68.2	68.6	67.3	66.0	66.1	68.8	67.8	(4)
Business and repair services	57.7	57.6	56.8	55.9	54.6	53.7	53.7	55.8	53.8	53.7	55.3	59.4	(4)
Private households	18.6	17.7	17.1	13.9	14.9	13.5	13.8	15.4	16.6	17.5	16.6	17.5	17.4
Personal services, exc. private households	41.6	43.6	43.1	42.7	43.8	37.4	41.8	41.2	42.7	43.6	41.8	43.3	(4)
Entertainment and recreation services	28.5	31.2	31.2	28.7	25.3	24.6	26.6	26.8	28.6	29.1	30.9	28.3	(4)
Medical and other health services	52.6	56.5	52.9	52.5	54.9	55.5	54.2	55.1	53.9	55.1	55.1	53.4	(4)
Welfare and religious services	52.2	52.2	52.3	51.5	51.7	53.1	51.8	56.4	59.5	55.0	48.6	54.1	(4)
Educational services	50.4	52.1	48.5	48.0	41.9	43.2	41.8	40.3	42.4	43.0	40.5	42.5	(4)
Other professional services	59.6	61.4	60.8	60.1	57.4	61.2	59.8	56.9	60.7	59.1	58.5	59.6	(4)
Public administration	76.7	76.7	76.3	76.2	77.6	79.8	78.8	78.3	77.8	75.0	77.7	78.5	77.8
Self-employed workers	64.6	65.0	64.3	62.7	62.6	65.0	65.1	63.1	61.9	65.4	66.4	66.9	67.2
Unpaid family workers	24.1	25.7	32.3	30.5	30.2	27.0	23.6	25.8	25.1	23.6	24.0	24.3	25.8

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[1] Data for 1950–56 appeared in the *1967 Manpower Report*.

[2] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

[3] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

[4] Not available.

Table B–16. Extent of Unemployment During the Year, by Sex, 1957–68

[Persons 14 years and over for 1957–66, 16 years and over for 1966 forward]

Item	1968	1967	1966[1]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
	Number (thousands)												
BOTH SEXES													
Total working or looking for work	91, 480	89, 432	87, 540	89, 924	87, 501	86, 837	85, 038	83, 944	81, 963	82, 204	79, 494	78, 787	78, 585
Percent with unemployment	12. 4	12. 9	13. 0	12. 9	14. 1	16. 2	16. 7	18. 2	18. 4	17. 2	15. 3	17. 9	14. 7
Number with unemployment	11, 332	11, 564	11, 387	11, 602	12, 334	14, 052	14, 211	15, 256	15, 096	14, 151	12, 195	14, 120	11, 568
Did not work but looked for work	1, 250	1, 253	1, 274	1, 371	1, 405	1, 713	1, 811	1, 887	1, 676	1, 586	1, 332	1, 670	921
Worked during year	10, 082	10, 311	10, 113	10, 231	10, 929	12, 339	12, 400	13, 369	13, 420	12, 565	10, 863	12, 449	10, 647
Year-round workers[2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	1, 285	1, 381	1, 269	1, 260	1, 207	1, 121	1, 239	1, 129	1, 036	1, 062	840	1, 180	1, 119
Part-year workers[3] with unemployment of:	8, 797	8, 930	8, 844	8, 962	9, 722	11, 218	11, 161	12, 240	12, 384	11, 503	10, 023	11, 269	9, 528
1 to 4 weeks	3, 632	3, 357	3, 348	3, 403	3, 151	3, 060	2, 708	2, 993	3, 098	2, 834	2, 569	2, 387	2, 443
5 to 10 weeks	1, 989	2, 073	2, 038	2, 059	2, 208	2, 550	2, 407	2, 759	2, 559	2, 704	2, 348	2, 367	2, 339
11 to 14 weeks	1, 036	1, 177	1, 047	1, 058	1, 286	1, 514	1, 595	1, 700	1, 669	1, 517	1, 403	1, 479	1, 394
15 to 26 weeks	1, 406	1, 520	1, 567	1, 585	1, 995	2, 444	2, 622	2, 768	2, 849	2, 466	1, 070	2, 556	1, 898
27 weeks or more	734	803	844	857	1, 082	1, 650	1, 840	2, 020	2, 209	1, 982	1, 633	2, 482	1, 454
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	3, 122	3, 357	3, 411	3, 458	3, 942	4, 755	4, 635	5, 219	4, 963	4, 602	4, 228	5, 117	4, 377
2 spells	1, 471	1, 503	1, 465	1, 479	1, 765	2, 342	2, 246	2, 524	2, 299	2, 034	1, 813	(4)	(4)
3 spells or more	1, 651	1, 854	1, 946	1, 979	2, 177	2, 413	2, 380	2, 695	2, 664	2, 568	2, 415	(4)	(4)
MALE													
Total working or looking for work	53, 677	52, 788	52, 103	53, 576	52, 958	52, 645	51, 817	51, 412	50, 610	50, 686	49, 523	49, 158	49, 444
Percent with unemployment	11. 7	12. 6	12. 5	12. 4	14. 0	16. 3	17. 2	18. 8	19. 4	18. 4	16. 5	19. 6	15. 7
Number with unemployment	6, 263	6, 655	6, 503	6, 658	7, 428	8, 563	8, 923	9, 686	9, 846	9, 318	8, 163	9, 645	7, 758
Did not work but looked for work	365	396	395	467	539	667	778	773	756	653	550	778	735
Worked during year	5, 898	6, 259	6, 108	6, 191	6, 889	7, 896	8, 145	8, 913	9, 090	8, 665	7, 613	8, 867	7, 023
Year-round workers[2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	900	1, 002	923	923	886	815	934	817	791	779	657	863	447
Part-year workers[3] with unemployment of:	4, 998	5, 257	5, 185	5, 268	6, 003	7, 081	7, 211	8, 096	8, 299	7, 886	6, 956	8, 004	6, 576
1 to 4 weeks	1, 875	1, 743	1, 727	1, 767	1, 694	1, 675	1, 521	1, 668	1, 709	1, 651	1, 472	1, 435	1, 475
5 to 10 weeks	1, 215	1, 310	1, 286	1, 300	1, 391	1, 706	1, 609	1, 891	1, 878	1, 907	1, 688	1, 692	1, 646
11 to 14 weeks	647	759	707	718	872	1, 038	1, 122	1, 194	1, 217	1, 123	1, 031	1, 094	1, 030
15 to 26 weeks	870	979	972	980	1, 347	1, 605	1, 802	1, 960	2, 027	1, 821	1, 564	1, 950	1, 385
27 weeks or more	391	466	493	503	699	1, 057	1, 157	1, 383	1, 468	1, 384	1, 201	1, 835	1, 039
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	2, 015	2, 228	2, 295	2, 328	2, 769	3, 314	3, 269	3, 805	3, 618	3, 430	3, 173	3, 850	3, 171
2 spells	901	908	900	913	1, 147	1, 576	1, 526	1, 788	1, 603	1, 453	1, 293	(4)	(4)
3 spells or more	1, 114	1, 320	1, 395	1, 415	1, 622	1, 738	1, 743	2, 017	2, 015	1, 977	1, 880	(4)	(4)
FEMALE													
Total working or looking for work	37, 803	36, 644	35, 437	36, 348	34, 633	34, 192	33, 221	32, 532	31, 353	31, 518	29, 971	29, 628	29, 141
Percent with unemployment	13. 4	13. 4	13. 8	13. 6	14. 2	16. 1	15. 9	17. 1	16. 7	15. 3	13. 5	15. 1	13. 1
Number with unemployment	5, 069	4, 909	4, 884	4, 944	4, 906	5, 489	5, 288	5, 570	5, 250	4, 833	4, 032	4, 474	3, 810
Did not work but looked for work	885	857	879	904	866	1, 046	1, 033	1, 114	920	993	782	892	186
Worked during year	4, 184	4, 052	4, 005	4, 040	4, 040	4, 443	4, 255	4, 456	4, 330	3, 900	3, 250	3, 582	3, 624
Year-round workers[2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	385	379	346	346	321	306	305	312	245	283	184	317	672
Part-year workers[3] with unemployment of:	3, 799	3, 673	3, 659	3, 694	3, 719	4, 137	3, 950	4, 144	4, 085	3, 617	3, 067	3, 265	2, 952
1 to 4 weeks	1, 757	1, 614	1, 621	1, 636	1, 457	1, 385	1, 187	1, 325	1, 389	1, 183	1, 097	952	968
5 to 10 weeks	774	763	752	759	817	844	798	868	681	797	660	675	693
11 to 14 weeks	389	418	340	340	414	476	473	506	452	394	372	385	363
15 to 26 weeks	536	541	595	605	640	839	809	808	822	645	506	606	513
27 weeks or more	343	337	351	354	383	593	683	637	741	598	432	647	415
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	1, 107	1, 129	1, 116	1, 130	1, 173	1, 441	1, 366	1, 414	1, 345	1, 172	1, 055	1, 267	1, 206
2 spells	570	595	565	566	618	766	720	736	696	581	520	(4)	(4)
3 spells or more	537	534	551	564	555	675	646	678	649	591	535	(4)	(4)

Footnotes at end of table.

Table B–16. Extent of Unemployment During the Year, by Sex, 1957–68—Continued

Item	1968	1967	1966 [1]	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
	Percent distribution of unemployed persons with work experience during the year												
BOTH SEXES													
Total who worked during year	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.00
Year-round workers [2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	12.7	13.4	12.5	12.4	11.0	9.1	10.0	8.4	7.7	8.5	7.7	9.5	10.5
Part-year workers [3] with unemployment of:	87.3	86.6	87.5	87.6	89.0	90.9	90.0	91.6	92.3	91.5	92.3	90.5	89.5
1 to 4 weeks	36.0	32.6	33.1	33.3	28.8	24.8	21.8	22.4	23.1	22.6	23.6	19.2	22.9
5 to 10 weeks	19.7	20.1	20.2	20.1	20.2	20.7	19.4	20.6	19.1	21.5	21.6	19.0	22.0
11 to 14 weeks	10.3	11.4	10.4	10.3	11.8	12.3	12.9	12.7	12.4	12.1	12.9	11.9	13.1
15 to 26 weeks	13.9	14.7	15.5	15.5	18.3	19.8	21.1	20.7	21.2	19.6	19.1	20.5	17.8
27 weeks or more	7.3	7.8	8.3	8.4	9.9	12.4	14.8	15.1	16.5	15.8	15.0	19.9	13.7
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	31.0	32.6	33.7	33.8	36.1	38.5	37.4	39.0	37.0	36.6	38.9	41.4	41.1
2 spells	14.6	14.6	14.5	14.5	16.1	19.0	18.1	18.9	17.1	16.2	16.7	(4)	(4)
3 spells or more	16.4	18.0	19.2	19.3	19.9	19.6	19.3	20.2	19.8	20.4	22.2	(4)	(4)
MALE													
Total who worked during year	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Year-round workers [2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	15.3	16.0	15.1	14.9	12.9	10.3	11.5	9.2	8.7	9.0	8.6	9.7	6.4
Part-year workers [3] with unemployment of:	84.7	84.0	84.9	85.1	87.1	89.7	88.5	90.8	91.3	91.0	91.4	90.3	93.6
1 to 4 weeks	31.8	27.8	28.3	28.5	24.6	21.2	18.7	18.7	18.8	19.1	19.3	16.2	21.0
5 to 10 weeks	20.6	20.9	21.1	21.0	20.2	21.6	19.8	21.2	20.7	22.0	22.2	19.1	23.4
11 to 14 weeks	11.0	12.1	11.6	11.6	12.7	13.1	13.8	13.4	13.4	13.0	13.5	12.3	14.7
15 to 26 weeks	14.8	15.6	15.9	15.8	19.6	20.3	22.1	22.0	22.3	21.0	20.5	22.0	19.7
27 weeks or more	6.6	7.4	8.1	8.1	10.1	13.4	14.2	15.5	16.1	16.0	15.8	20.7	14.8
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	34.2	35.6	37.6	37.6	40.2	42.0	40.1	42.7	39.8	39.6	41.7	43.4	45.2
2 spells	15.3	14.5	14.7	14.7	16.6	20.0	18.7	20.1	17.6	16.8	17.0	(4)	(4)
3 spells or more	18.9	21.1	22.8	22.9	23.5	22.0	21.4	22.6	22.2	22.8	24.7	(4)	(4)
FEMALE													
Total who worked during year	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Year-round workers [2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	9.2	9.4	8.6	8.6	7.9	6.9	7.2	7.0	5.7	7.3	5.7	8.8	18.5
Part-year workers [3] with unemployment of:	90.8	90.6	91.4	91.4	92.1	93.1	92.8	93.0	94.3	20.7	94.4	91.2	81.5
1 to 4 weeks	42.0	39.8	40.5	40.5	36.1	31.2	27.9	29.7	32.1	39.3	33.8	26.6	26.7
5 to 10 weeks	18.5	18.8	18.8	18.8	20.2	19.0	18.8	19.5	15.7	20.4	20.3	18.8	19.1
11 to 14 weeks	9.3	10.3	8.5	8.4	10.2	10.7	11.1	11.4	10.4	10.1	11.4	10.7	10.0
15 to 26 weeks	12.8	13.4	14.9	15.0	16.0	18.9	19.0	18.1	19.0	16.5	15.6	16.9	14.2
27 weeks or more	8.2	8.3	8.8	8.8	9.5	13.3	16.1	14.3	17.1	15.3	13.3	18.1	11.5
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	26.5	27.9	27.9	28.0	29.0	32.4	32.1	31.7	31.1	30.1	32.5	35.4	33.3
2 spells	13.6	14.7	14.1	14.0	15.3	17.2	16.9	16.5	16.1	14.9	16.0	(4)	(4)
3 spells or more	12.8	13.2	13.8	14.0	13.7	15.2	15.2	15.2	15.0	15.2	16.5	(4)	(4)

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[1] Data revised to refer to persons 16 years and over in accordance with the changes in age limit and concepts introduced in 1967.

[2] Worked 50 weeks or more.

[3] Worked less than 50 weeks.

[4] Not available.

NOTE: Data for recent years have been revised as a result of the adjustment to March 1968 benchmark levels. Beginning 1959, the data include Alaska and Hawaii and are therefore not strictly comparable with previous years. This inclusion resulted in an increase of about 210,000 in the 1959 average of total nonagricultural employment. For hours and earnings and labor turnover data, the effect of the inclusion was insignificant.

Table C–1. Total Employment on Payrolls of Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Year	Total	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing			Transportation and public utilities	Wholesale and retail trade			Finance, insurance, real estate	Services	Government		
				Total	Durable goods	Nondurable goods		Total	Wholesale	Retail			Total	Federal[1]	State and local
	Number (thousands)														
1947	43,881	955	1,982	15,545	8,385	7,159	4,166	8,955	2,361	6,595	1,754	5,050	5,474	1,892	3,582
1948	44,891	994	2,169	15,582	8,326	7,256	4,189	9,272	2,489	6,783	1,829	5,206	5,650	1,863	3,787
1949	43,778	930	2,165	14,441	7,489	6,953	4,001	9,264	2,487	6,778	1,857	5,264	5,856	1,908	3,948
1950	45,222	901	2,333	15,241	8,094	7,147	4,034	9,386	2,518	6,868	1,919	5,382	6,026	1,928	4,098
1951	47,849	929	2,603	16,393	9,089	7,304	4,226	9,742	2,606	7,136	1,991	5,576	6,389	2,302	4,087
1952	48,825	898	2,634	16,632	9,349	7,284	4,248	10,004	2,687	7,317	2,069	5,730	6,609	2,420	4,188
1953	50,232	866	2,623	17,549	10,110	7,438	4,290	10,247	2,727	7,520	2,146	5,867	6,645	2,305	4,340
1954	49,022	791	2,612	16,314	9,129	7,185	4,084	10,235	2,739	7,496	2,234	6,002	6,751	2,188	4,563
1955	50,675	792	2,802	16,882	9,541	7,340	4,141	10,535	2,796	7,740	2,335	6,274	6,914	2,187	4,727
1956	52,408	822	2,999	17,243	9,834	7,409	4,244	10,858	2,884	7,974	2,429	6,536	7,277	2,209	5,069
1957	52,894	828	2,923	17,174	9,856	7,319	4,241	10,886	2,893	7,992	2,477	6,749	7,616	2,217	5,399
1958	51,363	751	2,778	15,945	8,830	7,116	3,976	10,750	2,848	7,902	2,519	6,806	7,839	2,191	5,648
1959	53,313	732	2,960	16,675	9,373	7,303	4,011	11,127	2,946	8,182	2,594	7,130	8,083	2,233	5,850
1960	54,234	712	2,885	16,796	9,459	7,336	4,004	11,391	3,004	8,388	2,669	7,423	8,353	2,270	6,083
1961	54,042	672	2,816	16,326	9,070	7,256	3,903	11,337	2,993	8,344	2,731	7,664	8,594	2,279	6,315
1962	55,596	650	2,902	16,853	9,480	7,373	3,906	11,566	3,056	8,511	2,800	8,028	8,890	2,340	6,550
1963	56,702	635	2,963	16,995	9,616	7,380	3,903	11,778	3,104	8,675	2,877	8,325	9,225	2,358	6,868
1964	58,331	634	3,050	17,274	9,816	7,458	3,951	12,160	3,189	8,971	2,957	8,709	9,596	2,348	7,248
1965	60,815	632	3,186	18,062	10,406	7,656	4,036	12,716	3,312	9,404	3,023	9,087	10,074	2,378	7,696
1966	63,955	627	3,275	19,214	11,284	7,930	4,151	13,245	3,437	9,808	3,100	9,551	10,792	2,564	8,227
1967	65,857	613	3,208	19,447	11,439	8,008	4,261	13,606	3,525	10,081	3,225	10,099	11,398	2,719	8,679
1968	67,860	610	3,267	19,768	11,624	8,144	4,313	14,081	3,618	10,464	3,383	10,592	11,846	2,737	9,109
1969[2]	70,139	628	3,410	20,121	11,881	8,240	4,449	14,644	3,768	10,876	3,558	11,102	12,227	2,756	9,471
	Percent distribution														
1947	100.0	2.2	4.5	35.4	19.1	16.3	9.5	20.4	5.4	15.0	4.0	11.5	12.5	4.3	8.2
1948	100.0	2.2	4.8	34.7	18.5	16.2	9.3	20.7	5.5	15.1	4.1	11.6	12.6	4.2	8.4
1949	100.0	2.1	4.9	33.0	17.1	15.9	9.1	21.2	5.7	15.5	4.2	12.0	13.4	4.4	9.0
1950	100.0	2.0	5.2	33.7	17.9	15.8	8.9	20.8	5.6	15.2	4.2	11.9	13.3	4.3	9.1
1951	100.0	1.9	5.4	34.3	19.0	15.3	8.8	20.4	5.4	14.9	4.2	11.7	13.4	4.8	8.5
1952	100.0	1.8	5.4	34.1	19.1	14.9	8.7	20.5	5.5	15.0	4.2	11.7	13.5	5.0	8.6
1953	100.0	1.7	5.2	34.9	20.1	14.8	8.5	20.4	5.4	15.0	4.3	11.7	13.2	4.6	8.6
1954	100.0	1.6	5.3	33.3	18.6	14.7	8.3	20.9	5.6	15.3	4.6	12.2	13.8	4.5	9.3
1955	100.0	1.6	5.5	33.3	18.8	14.5	8.2	20.8	5.5	15.3	4.6	12.4	13.6	4.3	9.3
1956	100.0	1.6	5.7	32.9	18.8	14.1	8.1	20.7	5.5	15.2	4.6	12.5	13.9	4.2	9.7
1957	100.0	1.6	5.5	32.5	18.6	13.8	8.0	20.6	5.5	15.1	4.7	12.8	14.4	4.2	10.2
1958	100.0	1.5	5.4	31.0	17.2	13.9	7.7	20.9	5.5	15.4	4.9	13.3	15.3	4.3	11.0
1959	100.0	1.4	5.6	31.3	17.6	13.7	7.5	20.9	5.5	15.3	4.9	13.4	15.2	4.2	11.0
1960	100.0	1.3	5.3	31.0	17.4	13.5	7.4	21.0	5.5	15.5	4.9	13.7	15.4	4.2	11.2
1961	100.0	1.2	5.2	30.2	16.8	13.4	7.2	21.0	5.5	15.4	5.1	14.2	15.9	4.2	11.7
1962	100.0	1.2	5.2	30.3	17.1	13.3	7.0	20.8	5.5	15.3	5.0	14.4	16.0	4.2	11.8
1963	100.0	1.1	5.2	30.0	17.0	13.0	6.9	20.8	5.5	15.3	5.1	14.7	16.3	4.2	12.1
1964	100.0	1.1	5.2	29.6	16.8	12.8	6.8	20.8	5.5	15.4	5.1	14.9	16.5	4.0	12.4
1965	100.0	1.0	5.2	29.7	17.1	12.6	6.6	20.9	5.4	15.5	5.0	14.9	16.6	3.9	12.7
1966	100.0	1.0	5.1	30.0	17.6	12.4	6.5	20.7	5.4	15.3	4.8	14.9	16.9	4.0	12.9
1967	100.0	.9	4.9	29.5	17.4	12.2	6.5	20.7	5.4	15.3	4.9	15.3	17.3	4.1	13.2
1968	100.0	.9	4.8	29.1	17.1	12.0	6.4	20.8	5.3	15.4	5.0	15.6	17.5	4.0	13.4
1969[2]	100.0	.9	4.9	28.7	16.9	11.7	6.3	20.9	5.4	15.5	5.1	15.8	17.4	3.9	13.5

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[1] Data are prepared by the U.S. Civil Service Commission and relate to civilian employment only, excluding the Central Intelligence and National Security Agencies.

[2] Preliminary.

Table C–2. Total Employment on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–69

[Thousands]

Industry	1969[1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959
Total private[2]	57,911	56,015	54,459	53,163	50,741	48,735	47,477	46,706	45,448	45,881	45,229
Mining	628	610	613	627	632	634	635	650	672	712	732
Contract construction	3,410	3,267	3,208	3,275	3,186	3,050	2,963	2,902	2,816	2,885	2,960
Manufacturing	20,121	19,768	19,447	19,214	18,062	17,274	16,995	16,853	16,326	16,796	16,675
Durable goods	11,881	11,624	11,439	11,284	10,406	9,816	9,616	9,480	9,070	9,459	9,373
Ordnance and accessories	328.4	341.5	317.2	260.9	225.8	243.9	265.5	264.4	244.2	220.0	203.5
Lumber and wood products	600.1	597.8	596.8	614.3	606.9	604.2	592.6	589.3	582.9	626.8	658.8
Furniture and fixtures	492.4	474.2	455.4	461.5	430.7	405.9	389.9	385.1	367.5	383.0	385.0
Stone, clay, and glass products	661.4	637.0	628.3	644.2	628.3	613.8	600.8	592.3	582.0	604.0	604.0
Primary metal industries	1,350.1	1,314.3	1,322.1	1,350.7	1,301.0	1,233.2	1,172.2	1,165.6	1,142.7	1,231.2	1,182.6
Blast furnace and basic steel products	644.0	635.3	635.2	651.9	657.3	629.2	589.9	592.8	595.5	651.4	587.3
Fabricated metal products	1,454.4	1,393.7	1,363.1	1,351.3	1,269.0	1,189.7	1,150.1	1,127.7	1,084.5	1,135.3	1,122.5
Machinery, except electrical	2,006.6	1,960.5	1,969.6	1,910.0	1,735.3	1,609.6	1,529.3	1,493.2	1,418.6	1,479.0	1,452.1
Electrical equipment and supplies	2,037.5	1,981.9	1,958.9	1,908.8	1,659.2	1,543.8	1,553.9	1,567.0	1,473.3	1,467.1	1,396.4
Transportation equipment	2,035.9	2,028.4	1,948.5	1,917.7	1,740.6	1,604.3	1,609.7	1,547.0	1,448.6	1,568.9	1,635.0
Motor vehicles and equipment	900.9	869.6	815.8	861.6	842.7	752.9	741.3	691.7	632.3	724.1	692.3
Aircraft and parts	805.6	849.5	833.6	753.3	624.2	605.4	639.2	638.4	609.7	627.9	720.6
Instruments and related products	469.9	459.9	450.8	430.9	389.0	369.9	364.8	358.7	347.4	354.3	345.3
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	444.2	434.6	428.4	433.7	419.5	397.6	386.8	389.6	378.2	389.9	387.7
Nondurable goods	8,240	8,144	8,008	7,930	7,656	7,458	7,380	7,373	7,256	7,336	7,303
Food and kindred products	1,792.1	1,780.8	1,786.3	1,777.2	1,756.7	1,750.4	1,752.0	1,763.0	1,775.2	1,790.0	1,789.6
Tobacco manufactures	80.7	83.8	86.5	84.3	86.8	90.2	88.6	90.5	90.7	94.0	94.5
Textile mill products	987.2	990.6	958.5	963.5	925.6	892.0	885.4	902.3	893.4	924.4	945.7
Apparel and other textile products	1,417.6	1,407.9	1,397.5	1,401.9	1,354.2	1,302.5	1,282.8	1,263.7	1,214.5	1,233.2	1,225.9
Paper and allied products	716.1	692.5	679.1	666.9	639.1	625.5	618.5	614.4	601.3	601.1	587.2
Printing and publishing	1,086.3	1,063.1	1,047.8	1,016.9	979.4	951.5	930.6	926.4	917.3	911.3	888.5
Chemicals and allied products	1,049.3	1,026.1	1,001.4	961.4	907.8	878.6	865.3	848.5	828.2	828.2	809.2
Petroleum and coal products	183.9	187.0	183.2	184.2	182.9	183.9	188.7	195.3	201.9	211.9	215.5
Rubber and plastics products, nec	580.9	557.1	516.4	510.7	470.8	436.0	418.5	408.4	375.3	379.0	372.7
Leather and leather products	345.3	355.5	350.9	363.6	352.9	347.6	349.2	360.7	358.2	363.4	374.0
Wholesale and retail trade	14,644	14,081	13,606	13,245	12,716	12,160	11,778	11,566	11,337	11,391	11,127
Wholesale trade	3,768	3,618	3,525	3,437	3,312	3,189	3,104	3,056	2,993	3,004	2,946
Retail trade	10,876	10,464	10,081	9,808	9,404	8,971	8,675	8,511	8,344	8,388	8,182
Finance, insurance, real estate	3,558	3,383	3,225	3,100	3,023	2,957	2,877	2,800	2,731	2,669	2,594

	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Total private[2]	43,525	45,279	45,130	43,761	42,271	43,587	42,217	41,459	39,196	37,922	39,240	38,407
Mining	751	828	822	792	791	866	898	929	901	930	994	955
Contract construction	2,778	2,923	2,999	2,802	2,612	2,623	2,634	2,603	2,333	2,165	2,169	1,982
Manufacturing	15,945	17,174	17,243	16,882	16,314	17,549	16,632	16,393	15,241	14,441	15,582	15,545
Durable goods	8,830	9,856	9,834	9,541	9,129	10,110	9,349	9,089	8,094	7,489	8,326	8,385
Ordnance and accessories	158.1	140.2	138.5	141.2	163.3	234.3	178.7	77.0	30	26	28	27
Lumber and wood products	615.0	655.3	730.9	739.6	707.9	770.7	790.4	840.2	808	741	818	845
Furniture and fixtures	360.8	374.3	375.5	363.8	341.9	369.9	357.1	357.2	364	317	346	336
Stone, clay, and glass products	562.4	595.4	605.3	588.4	552.6	581.3	564.0	587.0	547	514	549	537
Primary metal industries	1,153.5	1,355.3	1,355.3	1,322.5	1,219.3	1,383.1	1,282.1	1,364.3	1,247	1,134	1,290	1,279
Blast furnace and basic steel products	601.1	719.9	706.6	706.9	645.5	726.1	638.0	714.4	674	610	679	656
Fabricated metal products	1,076.9	1,167.3	1,140.4	1,122.4	1,069.9	1,156.4	1,064.4	1,077.8	982	881	979	989
Machinery, except electrical	1,362.4	1,585.9	1,571.6	1,448.5	1,417.7	1,554.4	1,517.4	1,456.6	1,210	1,182	1,372	1,375
Electrical equipment and supplies	1,249.0	1,343.8	1,823.1	1,240.8	1,190.4	1,333.3	1,185.0	1,113.6	991	862	991	1,035
Transportation equipment	1,594.6	1,909.1	1,852.5	1,854.6	1,754.1	1,969.1	1,703.2	1,515.1	1,265	1,210	1,270	1,275
Motor vehicles and equipment	606.5	769.3	792.5	891.2	765.7	917.3	777.5	833.3	816	751	781	768
Aircraft and parts	771.0	895.8	837.3	761.3	782.9	795.5	670.6	467.8	283	264	238	239
Instruments and related products	323.8	342.1	337.8	323.2	321.2	337.1	312.5	294.3	250	239	262	267
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	373.0	387.2	403.0	396.2	390.7	420.9	393.7	406.0	400	385	422	421
Nondurable goods	7,116	7,319	7,409	7,340	7,185	7,438	7,284	7,304	7,147	6,953	7,256	7,159
Food and kindred products	1,772.8	1,805.4	1,841.9	1,824.7	1,818.3	1,838.9	1,827.8	1,823.2	1,790	1,778	1,801	1,799
Tobacco manufactures	94.5	97.0	99.6	102.5	103.3	103.6	105.6	104.1	103	109	114	118
Textile mill products	918.8	981.1	1,032.0	1,050.2	1,042.3	1,154.8	1,163.4	1,237.7	1,256	1,187	1,332	1,299
Apparel and other textile products	1,171.8	1,210.1	1,223.4	1,219.2	1,183.6	1,248.0	1,216.4	1,207.2	1,202	1,173	1,190	1,154
Paper and allied products	564.1	570.6	567.8	550.0	531.1	530.4	503.7	511.2	485	455	473	465
Printing and publishing	872.6	870.0	862.0	834.7	813.9	802.8	779.9	767.6	748	740	740	721
Chemicals and allied products	794.1	810.0	796.5	773.1	752.7	768.2	730.1	707.0	640	618	655	649
Petroleum and coal products	223.8	232.2	235.5	237.1	238.1	241.4	234.6	231.3	218	221	228	221
Rubber and plastics products, nec	344.3	371.9	369.2	363.3	328.4	361.0	338.3	334.4	311	283	312	323
Leather and leather products	359.2	372.7	382.7	385.9	373.0	389.2	384.2	380.0	395	389	412	412
Wholesale and retail trade	10,750	10,886	10,858	10,535	10,235	10,247	10,004	9,742	9,386	9,264	9,272	8,955
Wholesale trade	2,848	2,893	2,884	2,796	2,739	2,727	2,687	2,606	2,518	2,487	2,489	2,361
Retail trade	7,902	7,992	7,974	7,740	7,496	7,520	7,317	7,136	6,868	6,778	6,783	6,595
Finance, insurance, real estate	2,519	2,477	2,429	2,335	2,234	2,146	2,069	1,991	1,919	1,857	1,829	1,754

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[1] Preliminary.

[2] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

Table C–3. Production or Nonsupervisory Workers[1] on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–69

[Thousands]

Industry	1969[2]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959
Total private[3]	47,985	46,434	45,169	44,281	42,309	40,589	39,553	38,979	37,989	38,516	38,080
Mining	480	464	469	487	494	497	498	512	532	570	590
Contract construction	2,878	2,754	2,708	2,784	2,710	2,597	2,523	2,462	2,390	2,459	2,538
Manufacturing	14,736	14,505	14,308	14,297	13,434	12,781	12,555	12,488	12,083	12,586	12,603
Durable goods	8,640	8,456	8,364	8,370	7,715	7,213	7,027	6,935	6,618	7,028	7,033
Ordnance and accessories	183.0	191.8	174.1	127.3	96.1	104.1	115.2	119.3	110.6	101.9	98.0
Lumber and wood products	520.5	518.9	518.7	536.4	532.4	531.6	526.6	526.7	518.4	561.1	592.2
Furniture and fixtures	408.9	391.8	374.9	382.5	357.4	337.0	324.1	319.6	303.9	318.5	321.0
Stone, clay, and glass products	530.4	510.2	499.9	517.3	504.6	493.8	483.9	477.7	469.4	491.8	496.2
Primary metal industries	1,079.1	1,045.6	1,060.1	1,099.9	1,062.0	1,003.6	947.4	937.3	914.6	993.8	953.8
Blast furnace and basic steel products	513.9	505.8	509.5	530.9	538.4	515.6	479.1	476.3	478.4	528.4	470.9
Fabricated metal products	1,120.1	1,074.7	1,053.5	1,051.9	982.7	914.3	881.6	863.7	826.0	874.3	868.5
Machinery, except electrical	1,371.6	1,340.8	1,368.8	1,343.6	1,214.8	1,120.4	1,059.2	1,037.8	976.4	1,035.9	1,027.2
Electrical equipment and supplies	1,357.0	1,324.0	1,322.2	1,325.3	1,140.5	1,036.5	1,034.3	1,050.7	979.4	996.3	969.4
Transportation equipment	1,432.5	1,433.2	1,371.4	1,365.5	1,240.7	1,119.6	1,112.3	1,059.9	992.7	1,107.4	1,163.4
Motor vehicles and equipment	700.4	677.8	626.9	670.3	658.9	579.2	573.6	534.0	479.1	563.3	537.5
Aircraft and parts	462.9	503.5	501.5	446.4	356.3	338.6	350.8	349.1	347.7	369.6	445.7
Instruments and related products	289.9	283.6	281.8	274.7	248.1	234.0	232.3	229.1	223.1	232.6	230.3
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	347.4	341.3	338.3	346.1	335.5	317.9	310.4	313.2	303.5	314.3	312.9
Nondurable goods	6,096	6,049	5,944	5,926	5,719	5,569	5,527	5,553	5,465	5,559	5,570
Food and kindred products	1,203.1	1,191.3	1,187.3	1,180.0	1,159.1	1,157.3	1,167.1	1,178.4	1,191.1	1,211.8	1,222.1
Tobacco manufactures	67.7	71.3	73.9	71.8	74.8	78.4	76.6	78.7	79.6	83.3	83.9
Textile mill products	870.8	877.7	850.2	858.8	826.7	798.2	793.4	812.1	805.0	835.1	857.4
Apparel and other textile products	1,245.6	1,242.1	1,237.2	1,245.7	1,205.6	1,158.3	1,138.0	1,122.9	1,079.6	1,098.2	1,091.4
Paper and allied products	555.0	537.4	526.3	518.2	497.7	488.8	486.4	486.0	478.0	479.7	471.8
Printing and publishing	676.3	665.3	661.6	646.4	620.6	602.1	590.3	594.5	591.7	588.9	575.1
Chemicals and allied products	618.0	608.3	592.3	574.3	546.1	529.4	525.3	519.3	505.0	509.9	505.6
Petroleum and coal products	113.2	118.1	114.7	114.7	112.9	114.2	119.9	125.5	129.9	137.9	139.9
Rubber and plastics products, nec	450.0	431.3	397.0	397.8	365.9	336.3	322.7	316.5	288.3	292.8	289.8
Leather and leather products	296.1	306.5	303.7	318.5	310.0	305.5	307.8	318.9	316.4	320.9	332.9
Wholesale and retail trade	13,036	12,525	12,121	11,820	11,358	10,869	10,560	10,400	10,234	10,315	10,087
Wholesale trade	3,169	3,042	2,971	2,911	2,814	2,719	2,656	2,625	2,584	2,605	2,562
Retail trade	9,867	9,483	9,151	8,909	8,544	8,151	7,904	7,775	7,650	7,710	7,525
Finance, insurance, real estate[4]	2,828	2,687	2,566	2,476	2,426	2,386	2,329	2,274	2,225	2,181	2,121

	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Total private[3]	36,608	38,384	38,495	37,500	36,276	37,694	36,643	36,225	34,349	33,159	34,489	33,747
Mining	611	695	701	680	686	765	801	840	816	839	906	871
Contract construction	2,384	2,537	2,613	2,440	2,281	2,305	2,324	2,308	2,069	1,919	1,924	1,759
Manufacturing	11,997	13,189	13,436	13,288	12,817	14,055	13,359	13,368	12,523	11,790	12,910	12,990
Durable goods	6,579	7,550	7,669	7,548	7,194	8,154	7,550	7,480	6,705	6,122	6,925	7,028
Ordnance and accessories	82.4	80.4	84.9	91.7	113.1	173.6	130.2	59.3	23	20	23	22
Lumber and wood products	549.4	588.0	661.8	672.3	640.4	699.9	719.9	771.2	745	680	757	783
Furniture and fixtures	298.7	313.0	315.5	307.0	287.7	315.9	305.6	307.1	317	274	304	296
Stone, clay, and glass products	457.9	492.8	507.0	495.6	464.3	493.6	479.8	507.1	473	443	479	471
Primary metal industries	928.0	1,117.9	1,131.6	1,115.8	1,017.9	1,172.6	1,084.7	1,175.1	1,075	968	1,121	1,114
Blast furnace and basic steel products	486.5	600.1	595.4	604.5	546.1	620.4	541.5	620.2	587	527	594	575
Fabricated metal products	824.5	913.2	900.7	897.8	851.1	937.4	859.4	883.0	812	714	809	826
Machinery, except electrical	945.5	1,143.1	1,158.5	1,069.2	1,046.2	1,182.9	1,163.9	1,129.7	929	900	1,074	1,087
Electrical equipment and supplies	857.3	958.7	975.4	924.2	883.8	1,028.6	909.1	865.8	770	638	761	810
Transportation equipment	1,120.6	1,395.0	1,364.3	1,414.1	1,331.4	1,542.9	1,331.4	1,213.1	1,029	976	1,027	1,039
Motor vehicles and equipment	452.5	601.7	619.5	718.3	601.5	739.4	618.7	681.8	677	613	632	626
Aircraft and parts	491.9	591.4	561.0	525.5	560.2	586.2	495.4	348.4	209	197	175	177
Instruments and related products	214.8	233.1	236.1	229.6	231.0	249.8	233.2	222.3	189	181	205	213
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	299.5	315.3	333.1	330.4	326.6	356.7	332.5	346.1	344	327	365	367
Nondurable goods	5,419	5,638	5,767	5,740	5,623	5,901	5,810	5,888	5,817	5,669	5,986	5,962
Food and kindred products	1,222.0	1,263.2	1,302.1	1,291.7	1,296.6	1,329.7	1,330.9	1,338.4	1,331	1,341	1,374	1,395
Tobacco manufactures	84.1	85.3	90.1	94.4	95.2	95.7	97.2	96.0	95	101	106	110
Textile mill products	832.5	893.3	944.3	961.6	953.2	1,063.9	1,073.2	1,146.2	1,169	1,103	1,248	1,220
Apparel and other textile products	1,039.5	1,072.0	1,088.1	1,086.4	1,053.4	1,114.8	1,087.2	1,081.3	1,080	1,053	1,073	1,047
Paper and allied products	454.1	463.4	464.5	453.5	440.8	442.9	421.9	435.1	416	390	408	406
Printing and publishing	563.2	563.7	559.6	539.0	524.9	522.0	509.7	504.5	494	488	494	487
Chemicals and allied products	493.7	519.7	525.7	518.1	503.0	522.9	506.1	502.5	461	449	485	488
Petroleum and coal products	146.9	156.6	161.2	163.2	166.9	173.2	168.9	172.5	165	169	175	170
Rubber and plastics products, nec	264.4	290.1	290.7	288.3	256.7	287.8	269.9	270.5	252	226	253	263
Leather and leather products	318.2	331.0	340.9	344.0	332.5	348.7	344.4	340.8	355	348	369	374
Wholesale and retail trade	9,736	9,923	9,933	9,675	9,456	9,510	9,333	9,091	8,742	8,595	8,629	8,241
Wholesale trade	2,477	2,541	2,547	2,479	2,442	2,459	2,439	2,365	2,294	2,267	2,274	2,165
Retail trade	7,259	7,382	7,386	7,196	7,014	7,051	6,894	6,726	6,448	6,328	6,355	6,076
Finance, insurance, real estate[4]	2,063	2,031	1,994	1,920	1,837	1,771	1,711	1,649	1,591	1,542	1,521	1,460

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[1] For mining and manufacturing, data refer to production and related workers; for contract construction, to construction workers; for wholesale and retail trade and finance, insurance, and real estate, to nonsupervisory workers.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[4] Excludes data for nonoffice salemen.

Table C–4. Nonproduction-Worker Employment on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–69

[Thousands]

Industry	1969[1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959
Total private[2]	9,926	9,581	9,290	8,882	8,432	8,146	7,924	7,727	7,459	7,365	7,149
Mining	148	146	144	140	138	137	137	138	140	142	142
Contract construction	532	513	500	491	476	453	440	440	426	426	422
Manufacturing	5,385	5,263	5,139	4,917	4,628	4,493	4,440	4,365	4,243	4,210	4,072
Durable goods	3,241	3,168	3,075	2,914	2,691	2,603	2,589	2,545	2,452	2,431	2,340
Ordnance and accessories	145	150	143	134	130	140	150	145	134	118	106
Lumber and wood products	80	79	78	78	75	73	66	63	65	66	67
Furniture and fixtures	84	82	81	79	73	69	66	66	64	64	64
Stone, clay, and glass products	131	127	128	127	124	120	117	115	113	112	108
Primary metal industries	271	269	262	251	239	230	225	228	228	237	229
Blast furnace and basic steel products	130	130	126	121	119	114	111	117	117	123	116
Fabricated metal products	334	319	310	299	286	275	269	264	259	261	254
Machinery, except electrical	635	620	601	566	521	489	470	455	442	443	425
Electrical equipment and supplies	681	658	637	584	519	507	520	516	494	471	427
Transportation equipment	603	595	577	552	550	485	497	487	456	462	472
Motor vehicles and equipment	201	192	189	191	184	174	168	158	153	161	155
Aircraft and parts	343	346	332	307	268	267	288	289	262	258	275
Instruments and related products	180	176	169	156	141	136	133	130	124	121	115
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	97	93	90	88	84	80	76	76	74	76	75
Nondurable goods	2,144	2,095	2,064	2,004	1,937	1,889	1,853	1,820	1,791	1,777	1,733
Food and kindred products	589	590	599	597	598	593	585	585	584	578	568
Tobacco manufactures	13	13	13	13	12	12	12	12	11	11	11
Textile mill products	116	113	108	105	99	94	92	90	88	89	89
Apparel and other textile products	172	166	160	156	149	144	145	141	135	135	135
Paper and allied products	161	155	153	149	141	137	132	128	123	121	115
Printing and publishing	410	398	386	371	359	349	340	332	325	322	314
Chemicals and allied products	431	418	409	387	362	349	340	329	323	318	303
Petroleum and coal products	71	69	69	70	70	70	69	70	72	74	76
Rubber and plastics products, nec	131	126	119	113	105	100	96	92	87	86	83
Leather and leather products	49	49	47	45	43	42	41	42	42	42	41
Wholesale and retail trade	1,608	1,556	1,485	1,425	1,358	1,291	1,218	1,166	1,103	1,076	1,040
Wholesale trade	599	576	554	526	498	470	448	431	409	399	384
Retail trade	1,009	981	930	899	860	820	771	736	694	678	657
Finance, insurance, real estate	730	696	659	624	597	571	548	526	506	488	473

Industry	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Total private[2]	6,917	6,895	6,635	6,261	5,995	5,893	5,574	5,234	4,847	4,763	4,751	4,660
Mining	140	133	121	112	105	101	97	89	85	91	88	84
Contract construction	394	386	386	362	331	318	310	295	264	246	245	223
Manufacturing	3,948	3,985	3,807	3,594	3,497	3,494	3,273	3,025	2,718	2,651	2,672	2,555
Durable goods	2,251	2,306	2,165	1,993	1,935	1,956	1,799	1,609	1,389	1,367	1,401	1,357
Ordnance and accessories	76	60	54	50	50	61	49	18	7	6	5	5
Lumber and wood products	66	67	69	68	68	71	70	69	63	61	61	62
Furniture and fixtures	62	61	60	57	54	54	51	50	47	43	42	40
Stone, clay, and glass products	104	102	98	92	89	87	84	80	74	71	70	66
Primary metal industries	226	237	223	207	201	210	197	189	172	166	169	165
Blast furnace and basic steel products	115	120	111	102	99	106	97	94	87	83	85	81
Fabricated metal products	252	254	239	224	219	219	205	195	170	167	170	163
Machinery, except electrical	416	443	413	380	372	371	353	327	281	282	298	288
Electrical equipment and supplies	392	385	348	317	306	304	276	248	221	224	230	225
Transportation equipment	474	514	489	441	423	426	372	302	236	234	243	236
Motor vehicles and equipment	154	168	173	173	164	178	159	152	139	138	149	142
Aircraft and parts	279	304	276	236	223	209	175	119	74	67	63	62
Instruments and related products	109	109	102	93	90	87	80	72	61	58	57	54
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	73	72	70	66	64	64	61	60	56	58	57	54
Nondurable goods	1,697	1,681	1,642	1,600	1,562	1,537	1,474	1,416	1,330	1,284	1,270	1,197
Food and kindred products	551	542	540	533	521	509	497	485	459	437	427	404
Tobacco manufactures	11	12	10	9	8	8	9	8	8	8	8	8
Textile mill products	86	88	88	88	89	91	90	92	87	84	84	79
Apparel and other textile products	132	138	135	133	131	133	129	126	122	120	117	107
Paper and allied products	110	108	103	96	90	87	82	76	69	65	65	59
Printing and publishing	310	306	302	296	289	281	270	263	254	252	246	234
Chemicals and allied products	300	290	271	255	250	245	224	204	173	169	179	161
Petroleum and coal products	77	75	75	74	71	68	66	58	53	52	53	51
Rubber and plastics products, nec	80	82	78	75	71	73	68	63	59	57	59	60
Leather and leather products	41	42	42	42	40	40	40	39	40	41	43	38
Wholesale and retail trade	1,014	963	925	860	779	737	671	651	644	669	643	714
Wholesale trade	371	352	337	317	297	268	248	241	224	220	215	196
Retail trade	643	610	588	544	482	469	423	410	420	450	428	519
Finance, insurance, real estate	456	446	435	415	397	375	358	342	328	315	308	294

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[1] Preliminary.

[2] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

Table C–5. Nonproduction Workers on Private Payrolls as Percent of Total Employment: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Industry	1969 [1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959
Total private [2]	17.1	17.1	17.1	16.7	16.6	16.7	16.7	16.5	16.4	16.1	15.8
Mining	23.6	23.9	23.5	22.3	21.8	21.6	21.6	21.2	20.8	19.9	19.4
Contract construction	15.6	15.7	15.6	15.0	14.9	14.9	14.8	15.2	15.1	14.8	14.3
Manufacturing	26.8	26.6	26.4	25.6	25.6	26.0	26.1	25.9	26.0	25.1	24.4
Durable goods	27.3	27.3	26.9	25.8	25.9	26.5	26.9	26.8	27.0	25.7	25.0
Ordnance and accessories	44.2	43.9	45.1	51.4	57.6	57.4	56.5	54.8	54.9	53.6	52.1
Lumber and wood products	13.3	13.2	13.1	12.7	12.4	12.0	11.1	10.6	11.1	10.5	10.2
Furniture and fixtures	17.1	17.3	17.8	17.1	16.9	17.0	16.9	17.0	17.4	16.7	16.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	19.8	19.9	20.4	19.7	19.7	19.6	19.5	19.3	19.4	18.5	17.9
Primary metal industries	20.1	20.5	19.8	18.6	18.4	18.6	19.2	19.6	19.9	19.3	19.4
Blast furnace and basic steel products	20.2	20.5	19.8	18.6	18.1	18.1	18.8	19.7	19.6	18.9	19.8
Fabricated metal products	23.0	22.9	22.7	22.1	22.5	23.1	23.4	23.4	23.9	23.0	22.6
Machinery, except electrical	31.6	31.6	30.5	29.6	30.0	30.4	30.7	30.5	31.2	30.0	29.3
Electrical equipment and supplies	33.4	33.2	32.5	30.6	31.3	32.8	33.5	32.9	33.5	32.1	30.6
Transportation equipment	29.6	29.3	29.6	28.8	28.7	30.2	30.9	31.5	31.5	29.4	28.9
Motor vehicles and equipment	22.3	22.1	23.2	22.2	21.8	23.1	22.7	22.8	24.2	22.2	22.4
Aircraft and parts	42.6	40.7	39.8	40.8	42.9	44.1	45.1	45.3	43.0	41.1	38.1
Instruments and related products	38.3	38.3	37.5	36.2	36.2	36.7	36.4	36.1	35.7	34.2	33.3
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	21.8	21.4	21.0	20.3	20.0	20.0	19.6	19.6	19.6	19.5	19.3
Nondurable goods	26.0	25.7	25.8	25.3	25.3	25.3	25.1	24.7	24.7	24.2	23.7
Food and kindred products	32.9	33.1	33.5	33.6	34.0	33.9	33.4	33.2	32.9	32.3	31.7
Tobacco manufactures	16.1	15.5	15.0	15.4	13.8	13.3	13.5	13.0	12.1	11.7	11.6
Textile mill products	11.8	11.4	11.3	10.9	10.7	10.5	10.4	10.0	9.9	9.6	9.4
Apparel and other textile products	12.1	11.8	11.4	11.1	11.0	11.1	11.3	11.1	11.1	10.9	11.0
Paper and allied products	22.5	22.4	22.5	22.3	22.1	21.9	21.4	20.9	20.5	20.1	19.6
Printing and publishing	37.7	37.4	36.8	36.5	36.7	36.7	36.5	35.8	35.4	35.3	35.3
Chemicals and allied products	41.1	40.7	40.8	40.3	39.9	39.7	39.3	38.8	39.0	38.4	37.5
Petroleum and coal products	38.6	36.9	37.7	38.0	38.3	37.9	36.5	35.7	35.6	34.9	35.2
Rubber and plastics products, nec	22.6	22.6	23.0	22.1	22.3	22.9	23.0	22.5	23.2	22.7	22.3
Leather and leather products	14.2	13.8	13.4	12.4	12.2	12.1	11.7	11.6	11.7	11.6	11.0
Wholesale and retail trade	11.0	11.1	10.9	10.8	10.7	10.6	10.3	10.1	9.7	9.4	9.3
Wholesale trade	15.9	15.9	15.7	15.3	15.0	14.7	14.4	14.1	13.7	13.3	13.0
Retail trade	9.3	9.4	9.2	9.2	9.1	9.1	8.9	8.6	8.3	8.1	8.0
Finance, insurance, real estate	20.5	20.6	20.4	20.1	19.7	19.3	19.0	18.8	18.5	18.3	18.2

Industry	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Total private [2]	15.9	15.2	14.7	14.3	14.2	13.5	13.2	12.6	12.4	12.6	12.1	12.1
Mining	18.6	16.1	14.7	14.1	13.3	11.7	10.8	9.6	9.4	9.8	8.9	8.8
Contract construction	14.2	13.2	12.9	12.9	12.7	12.1	11.8	11.3	11.3	11.4	11.3	11.3
Manufacturing	24.8	23.2	22.1	21.3	21.4	19.9	19.7	18.5	17.8	18.4	17.1	16.4
Durable goods	25.5	23.4	22.0	20.9	21.2	19.3	19.2	17.7	17.2	18.3	16.8	16.2
Ordnance and accessories	48.1	42.8	39.0	35.4	30.6	26.0	27.4	23.4	23.3	23.1	17.9	18.5
Lumber and wood products	10.7	10.2	9.4	9.2	9.6	9.2	8.9	8.2	7.8	8.2	7.5	7.3
Furniture and fixtures	17.2	16.3	16.0	15.7	15.8	14.6	14.3	14.0	12.9	13.6	12.1	11.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	18.5	17.1	16.2	15.6	16.1	15.0	14.9	13.6	13.5	13.8	12.8	12.3
Primary metal industries	19.6	17.5	16.5	15.6	16.5	15.2	15.4	13.9	13.8	14.6	13.1	12.9
Blast furnace and basic steel products	19.1	16.7	15.7	14.4	15.3	14.6	15.0	13.2	12.9	13.6	12.5	12.3
Fabricated metal products	23.4	21.8	21.0	20.0	20.5	18.9	19.3	18.1	17.3	19.0	17.4	16.5
Machinery, except electrical	30.5	27.9	26.3	26.2	26.2	23.9	23.3	22.4	23.2	23.9	21.7	20.9
Electrical equipment and supplies	31.4	28.6	26.3	25.5	25.7	22.8	23.3	22.3	22.3	26.0	23.2	21.7
Transportation equipment	29.7	26.9	26.4	23.8	24.1	21.6	21.8	19.9	18.7	19.3	19.1	18.5
Motor vehicles and equipment	25.4	21.8	21.8	19.4	21.4	19.4	20.4	18.2	17.0	18.4	19.1	18.5
Aircraft and parts	36.2	33.9	33.0	31.0	28.5	26.3	26.1	25.4	26.1	25.4	26.5	25.9
Instruments and related products	33.6	31.9	30.2	28.8	28.0	25.8	25.6	24.5	24.4	24.3	21.8	20.2
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	19.6	18.6	17.4	16.7	16.4	15.2	15.5	14.8	14.0	15.1	13.5	12.8
Nondurable goods	23.8	23.0	22.2	21.8	21.7	20.7	20.2	19.4	18.6	18.5	17.5	16.7
Food and kindred products	31.1	30.0	29.3	29.2	28.7	27.7	27.2	26.6	25.6	24.6	23.7	22.5
Tobacco manufactures	11.6	12.4	10.0	8.7	7.8	7.7	8.5	7.7	7.8	7.3	7.0	6.8
Textile mill products	9.4	9.0	8.5	8.4	8.5	7.9	7.7	7.4	6.9	7.1	6.3	6.1
Apparel and other textile products	11.3	11.4	11.0	10.9	11.1	10.7	10.6	10.4	10.1	10.2	9.8	9.3
Paper and allied products	19.5	18.9	18.1	17.5	16.9	16.4	16.3	14.9	14.2	14.3	13.7	12.7
Printing and publishing	35.5	35.2	35.0	35.4	35.5	35.0	34.6	34.2	34.0	34.1	33.2	32.5
Chemicals and allied products	37.8	35.8	34.0	33.0	33.2	31.9	30.7	28.9	28.0	27.3	26.0	24.8
Petroleum and coal products	34.4	32.3	31.8	31.2	29.8	28.2	28.1	25.1	24.3	23.5	23.2	23.1
Rubber and plastics products, nec	23.3	22.0	21.1	20.7	21.6	20.2	20.1	18.9	19.0	20.1	18.9	18.6
Leather and leather products	11.4	11.3	11.0	10.9	10.7	10.3	10.4	10.3	10.1	10.5	10.4	9.2
Wholesale and retail trade	9.4	8.8	8.5	8.2	7.6	7.2	6.7	6.7	6.9	7.2	6.9	8.0
Wholesale trade	13.0	12.2	11.7	11.3	10.8	9.8	9.2	9.2	8.9	8.8	8.6	8.3
Retail trade	8.1	7.6	7.4	7.0	6.4	6.2	5.8	5.7	6.1	6.6	6.3	7.9
Finance, insurance, real estate	18.1	18.0	17.9	17.8	17.8	17.5	17.3	17.2	17.1	17.0	16.8	16.8

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

Table C–6. Gross Average Hourly Earnings of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers [1] on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Industry	1969 [2]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959
Total private [3]	$3.04	$2.85	$2.68	$2.56	$2.45	$2.36	$2.28	$2.22	$2.14	$2.09	$2.02
Mining	3.59	3.35	3.19	3.05	2.92	2.81	2.75	2.70	2.64	2.61	2.56
Contract construction	4.77	4.40	4.11	3.89	3.70	3.55	3.41	3.31	3.20	3.08	2.93
Manufacturing	3.19	3.01	2.83	2.72	2.61	2.53	2.46	2.39	2.32	2.26	2.19
Durable goods	3.38	3.19	3.00	2.90	2.79	2.71	2.63	2.56	2.49	2.43	2.36
Ordnance and accessories	3.45	3.27	3.18	3.17	3.13	3.03	2.93	2.83	2.75	2.65	2.57
Lumber and wood products	2.73	2.57	2.37	2.25	2.17	2.11	2.04	1.99	1.95	1.89	1.87
Furniture and fixtures	2.62	2.47	2.33	2.21	2.12	2.05	2.00	1.95	1.91	1.88	1.83
Stone, clay, and glass products	3.18	2.99	2.82	2.72	2.62	2.53	2.47	2.41	2.34	2.28	2.22
Primary metal industries	3.79	3.55	3.34	3.28	3.18	3.11	3.04	2.98	2.90	2.81	2.77
Fabricated metal products	3.33	3.16	2.98	2.88	2.76	2.68	2.61	2.55	2.49	2.43	2.35
Machinery, except electrical	3.58	3.36	3.19	3.09	2.96	2.87	2.78	2.71	2.62	2.55	2.48
Electrical equipment and supplies	3.09	2.93	2.77	2.65	2.58	2.51	2.46	2.40	2.35	2.28	2.20
Transportation equipment	3.90	3.69	3.44	3.33	3.21	3.09	3.01	2.91	2.80	2.74	2.64
Instruments and related products	3.16	2.98	2.85	2.73	2.62	2.54	2.49	2.44	2.38	2.31	2.24
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	2.65	2.50	2.35	2.22	2.14	2.08	2.03	1.98	1.92	1.89	1.84
Nondurable goods	2.91	2.74	2.57	2.45	2.36	2.29	2.22	2.17	2.11	2.05	1.98
Food and kindred products	2.95	2.80	2.64	2.52	2.43	2.37	2.30	2.24	2.17	2.11	2.02
Tobacco manufactures	2.65	2.49	2.27	2.19	2.09	1.95	1.91	1.85	1.78	1.70	1.64
Textile mill products	2.35	2.21	2.06	1.96	1.87	1.79	1.71	1.68	1.63	1.61	1.56
Apparel and other textile products	2.31	2.21	2.03	1.89	1.83	1.79	1.73	1.69	1.64	1.59	1.56
Paper and allied products	3.24	3.05	2.87	2.75	2.65	2.56	2.48	2.40	2.34	2.26	2.18
Printing and publishing	3.69	3.48	3.28	3.16	3.06	2.97	2.89	2.82	2.75	2.68	2.59
Chemicals and allied products	3.47	3.26	3.10	2.99	2.89	2.80	2.72	2.65	2.58	2.50	2.40
Petroleum and coal products	3.99	3.75	3.58	3.41	3.28	3.20	3.16	3.05	3.01	2.89	2.85
Rubber and plastics products, nec	3.07	2.92	2.74	2.67	2.61	2.54	2.47	2.44	2.38	2.32	2.27
Leather and leather products	2.36	2.23	2.07	1.94	1.88	1.82	1.76	1.72	1.68	1.64	1.59
Wholesale and retail trade	2.56	2.40	2.24	2.13	2.03	1.96	1.89	1.83	1.76	1.71	1.66
Wholesale trade	3.23	3.05	2.88	2.73	2.61	2.52	2.45	2.37	2.31	2.24	2.18
Retail trade	2.30	2.16	2.01	1.91	1.82	1.75	1.68	1.63	1.56	1.52	1.47
Finance, insurance, real estate [4]	2.92	2.75	2.58	2.47	2.39	2.30	2.25	2.17	2.09	2.02	1.95

Industry	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Total private [3]	$1.95	$1.89	$1.80	$1.71	$1.65	$1.61	$1.52	$1.45	$1.34	$1.28	$1.23	$1.13
Mining	2.47	2.46	2.33	2.20	2.14	2.14	2.01	1.93	1.77	1.72	1.66	1.47
Contract construction	2.82	2.71	2.57	2.45	2.39	2.28	2.13	2.02	1.86	1.79	1.71	1.54
Manufacturing	2.11	2.05	1.95	1.86	1.78	1.74	1.65	1.56	1.44	1.38	1.33	1.22
Durable goods	2.26	2.19	2.08	1.99	1.90	1.86	1.75	1.65	1.52	1.45	1.40	1.28
Ordnance and accessories	2.51	2.36	2.21	2.07	2.00	1.92	1.82	1.71	1.56	1.48	1.39	1.31
Lumber and wood products	1.79	1.74	1.69	1.62	1.57	1.55	1.49	1.41	1.30	1.22	1.19	1.09
Furniture and fixtures	1.78	1.75	1.69	1.62	1.57	1.54	1.47	1.39	1.28	1.23	1.19	1.10
Stone, clay, and glass products	2.12	2.05	1.96	1.86	1.77	1.72	1.61	1.54	1.44	1.37	1.31	1.19
Primary metal industries	2.64	2.50	2.36	2.24	2.10	2.06	1.90	1.81	1.65	1.59	1.52	1.39
Fabricated metal products	2.25	2.16	2.05	1.96	1.88	1.83	1.72	1.64	1.52	1.45	1.38	1.26
Machinery, except electrical	2.37	2.29	2.20	2.08	2.00	1.95	1.85	1.75	1.60	1.52	1.46	1.34
Electrical equipment and supplies	2.12	2.04	1.95	1.84	1.79	1.74	1.65	1.56	1.44	1.41	1.36	1.25
Transportation equipment	2.51	2.39	2.29	2.21	2.11	2.05	1.95	1.84	1.72	1.64	1.57	1.44
Instruments and related products	2.15	2.06	1.97	1.87	1.80	1.75	1.69	1.59	1.45	1.37	1.31	1.20
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	1.79	1.75	1.69	1.61	1.56	1.52	1.45	1.36	1.28	1.22	1.18	1.11
Nondurable goods	1.91	1.85	1.77	1.67	1.62	1.58	1.51	1.44	1.35	1.30	1.25	1.14
Food and kindred products	1.94	1.85	1.76	1.66	1.59	1.53	1.44	1.35	1.26	1.21	1.15	1.06
Tobacco manufactures	1.59	1.53	1.45	1.34	1.30	1.25	1.18	1.14	1.08	1.00	.96	.90
Textile mill products	1.49	1.49	1.44	1.38	1.36	1.36	1.34	1.32	1.23	1.18	1.16	1.04
Apparel and other textile products	1.54	1.51	1.47	1.37	1.37	1.35	1.32	1.31	1.24	1.21	1.22	1.16
Paper and allied products	2.10	2.02	1.92	1.81	1.73	1.67	1.59	1.51	1.40	1.33	1.28	1.15
Printing and publishing	2.49	2.40	2.33	2.26	2.18	2.11	2.02	1.91	1.83	1.77	1.65	1.48
Chemicals and allied products	2.29	2.20	2.09	1.97	1.89	1.81	1.69	1.62	1.50	1.42	1.34	1.22
Petroleum and coal products	2.73	2.66	2.54	2.37	2.29	2.22	2.10	1.99	1.84	1.80	1.71	1.50
Rubber and plastics products, nec	2.19	2.11	2.03	1.96	1.84	1.80	1.71	1.58	1.47	1.41	1.36	1.30
Leather and leather products	1.56	1.52	1.48	1.39	1.36	1.35	1.30	1.25	1.17	1.12	1.10	1.04
Wholesale and retail trade	1.60	1.54	1.47	1.40	1.35	1.30	1.23	1.18	1.10	1.06	1.01	.94
Wholesale trade	2.09	2.02	1.94	1.83	1.76	1.70	1.61	1.52	1.43	1.36	1.31	1.22
Retail trade	1.42	1.37	1.30	1.25	1.20	1.16	1.09	1.06	.98	.95	.90	.84
Finance, insurance, real estate [4]	1.89	1.84	1.78	1.70	1.65	1.58	1.51	1.45	1.34	1.26	1.20	1.14

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[1] See footnote 1, table C–3.

[2] Preliminary unweighted average.

[3] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[4] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

Table C–7. Gross Average Weekly Earnings of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers [1] on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Industry	1969 [2]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959
Total private [3]	$114.61	$107.73	$101.84	$98.82	$95.06	$91.33	$88.46	$85.91	$82.60	$80.67	$78.78
Mining	154.73	143.05	135.89	130.24	123.52	117.74	114.40	110.43	106.92	105.44	103.68
Contract construction	181.26	164.56	154.95	146.26	138.38	132.06	127.19	122.47	118.08	113.04	108.41
Manufacturing	129.51	122.51	114.90	112.34	107.53	102.97	99.63	96.56	92.34	89.72	88.26
Durable goods	139.59	132.07	123.60	122.09	117.18	112.19	108.09	104.70	100.35	97.44	96.05
Ordnance and accessories	139.73	135.71	132.61	133.77	131.15	122.72	120.42	116.60	113.03	108.39	106.14
Lumber and wood products	110.02	104.34	95.27	91.80	88.75	85.24	81.80	79.20	76.83	73.71	74.24
Furniture and fixtures	105.85	100.28	94.13	91.72	87.19	84.46	81.80	79.37	76.40	75.20	74.48
Stone, clay, and glass products	133.56	124.98	117.31	114.24	110.40	105.50	102.26	98.5[illegible]	95.24	92.57	91.46
Primary metal industries	158.42	147.68	137.27	138.09	133.88	130.00	124.64	119.80	114.84	109.59	112.19
Fabricated metal products	138.53	131.77	123.67	122.11	116.20	111.76	108.05	104.81	100.85	98.42	96.12
Machinery, except electrical	152.15	141.46	135.89	135.34	127.58	121.69	116.20	113.01	107.42	104.55	102.92
Electrical equipment and supplies	124.84	118.08	111.35	109.18	105.78	101.66	99.14	97.44	94.47	90.74	89.10
Transportation equipment	161.46	155.72	142.42	141.86	137.71	130.09	126.72	122.22	113.40	111.52	107.45
Instruments and related products	128.93	120.69	117.71	114.93	108.47	103.63	101.59	99.80	96.87	93.32	91.39
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	103.09	98.25	92.59	88.80	85.39	82.37	80.39	78.16	75.84	74.28	73.42
Nondurable goods	115.53	109.05	102.03	98.49	94.64	90.91	87.91	85.93	82.92	80.36	78.61
Food and kindred products	120.36	114.24	107.98	103.82	99.87	97.17	94.30	91.84	88.75	86.09	82.82
Tobacco manufactures	99.11	94.12	87.62	85.19	79.21	75.66	73.92	71.41	69.42	64.94	64.12
Textile mill products	95.88	91.05	84.25	82.12	78.17	73.39	69.43	68.21	65.04	63.60	63.02
Apparel and other textile products	82.93	79.78	73.08	68.80	66.61	64.26	62.45	61.18	58.06	56.29	56.63
Paper and allied products	139.00	130.85	122.84	119.35	114.22	109.57	105.90	102.00	99.45	95.15	93.30
Printing and publishing	141.70	133.28	125.95	122.61	118.12	114.35	110.69	108.01	105.05	102.91	99.46
Chemicals and allied products	145.05	136.27	128.96	125.58	121.09	116.48	112.88	110.24	106.81	103.25	99.36
Petroleum and coal products	169.97	159.38	152.87	144.58	138.42	133.76	131.77	126.88	124.31	118.78	117.42
Rubber and plastics products, nec	126.18	121.18	113.44	112.14	109.62	104.90	100.78	100.04	96.15	92.57	93.75
Leather and leather products	87.79	85.41	78.87	74.88	71.82	68.98	66.00	64.67	62.83	60.52	60.10
Wholesale and retail trade	91.14	86.40	81.76	79.02	76.53	74.28	72.01	69.91	67.41	66.01	64.41
Wholesale trade	129.85	122.31	116.06	111.11	106.49	102.31	99.47	96.22	93.56	90.72	88.51
Retail trade	78.66	74.95	70.95	68.57	66.61	64.75	62.66	60.96	58.66	57.76	56.15
Finance, insurance, real estate [4]	108.33	101.75	95.46	92.13	88.91	85.79	84.38	80.94	77.12	75.14	72.74

Industry	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Total private [3]	$75.08	$73.33	$70.74	$67.72	$64.52	$63.76	$60.65	$57.86	$53.13	$50.24	$49.00	$45.58
Mining	96.08	98.65	95.06	89.54	82.60	83.03	77.59	74.11	67.16	62.33	65.56	59.94
Contract construction	103.78	100.27	96.38	90.90	88.91	86.41	82.86	76.96	69.68	67.56	65.27	58.87
Manufacturing	82.71	81.59	78.78	75.70	70.49	70.47	67.16	63.34	58.32	53.88	53.12	49.17
Durable goods	89.27	88.26	85.28	82.19	76.19	76.63	72.63	68.48	62.43	57.25	56.36	51.76
Ordnance and accessories	102.41	95.58	91.72	83.63	79.80	78.14	77.35	74.04	65.06	58.80	57.28	53.81
Lumber and wood products	69.09	66.64	65.57	63.99	61.39	60.76	59.15	55.41	51.27	48.02	47.60	43.93
Furniture and fixtures	69.95	69.83	68.78	67.07	62.80	62.99	60.86	57.13	53.59	49.36	48.87	45.53
Stone, clay, and glass products	84.80	82.82	80.56	77.00	71.60	70.18	66.17	63.76	59.10	54.31	53.19	48.95
Primary metal industries	101.11	99.00	96.76	92.51	81.48	84.46	77.52	75.30	67.36	60.94	61.18	55.38
Fabricated metal products	89.78	88.34	84.67	81.73	76.70	76.49	71.72	68.55	63.04	57.45	56.33	51.74
Machinery, except electrical	94.33	94.12	93.06	87.36	81.40	82.68	79.55	76.13	67.08	60.31	60.38	55.78
Electrical equipment and supplies	83.95	81.80	79.56	74.89	71.24	70.99	67.98	64.27	59.35	55.77	54.54	50.25
Transportation equipment	100.40	97.51	94.81	93.48	86.30	85.28	81.51	75.81	71.29	65.10	61.74	57.01
Instruments and related products	85.57	83.22	80.77	76.48	72.00	72.63	70.98	67.10	59.80	54.39	52.58	48.36
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	70.17	69.48	67.60	64.88	61.78	61.56	59.02	55.08	52.02	48.23	48.07	44.79
Nondurable goods	74.11	72.52	70.09	66.63	63.18	62.57	59.95	56.88	43.48	50.38	49.50	46.03
Food and kindred products	79.15	75.48	72.69	68.89	65.67	63.50	60.34	56.84	52.88	50.53	48.89	45.92
Tobacco manufactures	62.17	58.75	56.26	51.86	48.88	47.63	45.31	43.89	41.00	37.26	36.61	35.20
Textile mill products	57.51	57.96	57.17	55.34	52.09	53.18	52.39	51.22	48.63	44.41	45.28	40.99
Apparel and other textile products	54.05	53.91	52.92	49.73	48.36	48.74	47.92	46.64	44.64	42.80	43.68	41.80
Paper and allied products	87.99	85.45	82.18	78.01	73.18	71.81	68.05	65.08	60.53	55.42	54.74	49.69
Printing and publishing	94.62	92.64	90.64	87.91	83.93	82.29	78.58	74.30	71.26	68.64	65.17	59.34
Chemicals and allied products	93.20	89.98	85.90	80.97	77.11	74.21	69.12	66.91	61.68	75.67	55.33	50.31
Petroleum and coal products	111.66	108.53	104.14	96.93	93.20	90.35	85.05	81.19	75.11	72.46	69.30	60.98
Rubber and plastics products, nec	85.85	85.67	82.01	81.93	73.23	72.72	69.77	64.31	60.35	54.14	53.35	51.87
Leather and leather products	57.25	56.85	55.65	52.68	50.18	50.90	49.92	46.13	43.99	41.07	41.11	40.07
Wholesale and retail trade	61.76	59.60	57.48	55.16	53.33	51.35	49.20	47.79	44.55	42.93	40.80	38.07
Wholesale trade	84.02	81.41	78.57	74.48	71.28	69.02	65.53	62.02	58.08	55.49	53.63	50.14
Retail trade	54.10	52.20	50.18	48.75	47.04	45.36	43.38	42.82	39.71	38.42	36.22	33.77
Finance, insurance, real estate [4]	70.12	67.53	65.68	63.92	62.04	59.57	57.08	54.67	50.52	47.63	45.48	43.21

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[1] See footnote 1, table C–3.

[2] Preliminary unweighted average.

[3] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[4] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

Table C–8. Gross Average Weekly Hours of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers[1] on Private Payrolls: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Industry	1969[2]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959
Total private[3]	37.7	37.8	38.0	38.6	38.8	38.7	38.8	38.7	38.6	38.6	39.0
Mining	43.1	42.7	42.6	42.7	42.3	41.9	41.6	40.9	40.5	40.4	40.5
Contract construction	38.0	37.4	37.7	37.6	37.4	37.2	37.3	37.0	36.9	36.7	37.0
Manufacturing	40.6	40.7	40.6	41.3	41.2	40.7	40.5	40.4	39.8	39.7	40.3
Durable goods	41.3	41.4	41.2	42.1	42.0	41.4	41.1	40.9	40.3	40.1	40.7
Ordnance and accessories	40.5	41.5	41.7	42.2	41.9	40.5	41.1	41.2	41.1	40.9	41.3
Lumber and wood products	40.3	40.6	40.2	40.8	40.9	40.4	40.1	39.8	39.4	39.0	39.7
Furniture and fixtures	40.4	40.6	40.4	41.5	41.6	41.2	40.9	40.7	40.0	40.0	40.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	42.0	41.8	41.6	42.0	42.0	41.7	41.4	40.9	40.7	40.6	41.2
Primary metal industries	41.8	41.6	41.1	42.1	42.1	41.8	41.0	40.2	39.6	39.0	40.5
Fabricated metal products	41.6	41.7	41.5	42.4	42.1	41.7	41.4	41.1	40.5	40.5	40.9
Machinery, except electrical	42.5	42.1	42.6	43.8	43.1	42.4	41.8	41.7	41.0	41.0	41.5
Electrical equipment and supplies	40.4	40.3	40.2	41.2	41.0	40.5	40.3	40.6	40.2	39.8	40.5
Transportation equipment	41.4	42.2	41.4	42.6	42.9	42.1	42.1	42.0	40.5	40.7	40.7
Instruments and related products	40.8	40.5	41.3	42.1	41.4	40.8	40.8	40.9	40.7	40.4	40.8
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	38.9	39.3	39.4	40.0	39.9	39.6	39.6	39.7	39.5	39.3	39.9
Nondurable goods	39.7	39.8	39.7	40.2	40.1	39.7	39.6	39.6	39.3	39.2	39.7
Food and kindred products	40.8	40.8	40.9	41.2	41.1	41.0	41.0	41.0	40.9	40.8	41.0
Tobacco manufactures	37.4	37.8	38.6	38.9	37.9	38.8	38.7	38.6	39.0	38.2	39.1
Textile mill products	40.8	41.2	40.9	41.9	41.8	41.0	40.6	40.6	39.9	39.5	40.4
Apparel and other textile products	35.9	36.1	36.0	36.4	36.4	35.9	36.1	36.2	35.4	35.4	36.3
Paper and allied products	42.9	42.9	42.8	43.4	43.1	42.8	42.7	42.5	42.5	42.1	42.8
Printing and publishing	38.4	38.3	38.4	38.8	38.6	38.5	38.3	38.3	38.2	38.4	38.4
Chemicals and allied products	41.8	41.8	41.6	42.0	41.9	41.6	41.5	41.6	41.4	41.3	41.4
Petroleum and coal products	42.6	42.5	42.7	42.4	42.2	41.8	41.7	41.6	41.3	41.1	41.2
Rubber and plastics products, nec	41.1	41.5	41.4	42.0	42.0	41.3	40.8	41.0	40.4	39.9	41.3
Leather and leather products	37.2	38.3	38.1	38.6	38.2	37.9	37.5	37.6	37.4	36.9	37.8
Wholesale and retail trade	35.6	36.0	36.5	37.1	37.7	37.9	38.1	38.2	38.3	38.6	38.8
Wholesale trade	40.2	40.1	40.3	40.7	40.8	40.6	40.6	40.6	40.5	40.5	40.6
Retail trade	34.2	34.7	35.3	35.9	36.6	37.0	37.3	37.4	37.6	38.0	38.2
Finance, insurance, real estate[4]	37.1	37.0	37.0	37.3	37.2	37.3	37.5	37.3	36.9	37.2	37.3

Industry	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Total private[3]	38.5	38.8	39.3	39.6	39.1	39.6	39.9	39.9	39.8	39.4	40.0	40.3
Mining	38.9	40.1	40.8	40.7	38.6	38.8	38.6	38.4	37.9	36.3	39.4	40.8
Contract construction	36.8	37.0	37.5	37.1	37.2	37.9	38.9	38.1	37.4	37.7	38.1	38.2
Manufacturing	39.2	39.8	40.4	40.7	39.6	40.5	40.7	40.6	40.5	39.1	40.0	40.4
Durable goods	39.5	40.3	41.0	41.3	40.1	41.2	41.5	41.5	41.1	39.4	40.4	40.5
Ordnance and accessories	40.8	40.5	41.5	40.4	39.9	40.7	42.5	43.3	41.6	39.7	41.3	41.2
Lumber and wood products	38.6	38.3	38.8	39.5	39.1	39.2	39.7	39.3	39.5	39.2	40.0	40.3
Furniture and fixtures	39.3	39.9	40.7	41.4	40.0	40.9	41.4	41.1	41.8	40.0	41.0	41.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	40.0	40.4	41.1	41.4	40.5	40.8	41.1	41.4	41.1	39.7	40.7	41.0
Primary metal industries	38.3	39.6	41.0	41.3	38.8	41.0	40.8	41.6	40.9	38.4	40.2	39.9
Fabricated metal products	39.9	40.9	41.3	41.7	40.8	41.8	41.7	41.8	41.5	39.7	40.7	40.9
Machinery, except electrical	39.8	41.1	42.3	42.0	40.7	42.4	43.0	43.5	41.9	39.6	41.3	41.5
Electrical equipment and supplies	39.6	40.1	40.8	40.7	39.8	40.8	41.2	41.2	41.1	39.5	40.1	40.3
Transportation equipment	40.0	40.8	41.4	42.3	40.9	41.6	41.8	41.2	41.4	39.6	39.4	39.7
Instruments and related products	39.8	40.4	41.0	40.9	40.0	41.5	42.0	42.2	41.3	39.7	40.2	40.4
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	39.2	39.7	40.0	40.3	39.6	40.5	40.7	40.5	40.8	39.6	40.6	40.5
Nondurable goods	38.8	39.2	39.6	39.9	39.0	39.6	39.7	39.5	39.7	38.9	39.6	40.2
Food and kindred products	40.8	40.8	41.3	41.5	41.3	41.5	41.9	42.1	41.9	41.9	42.4	43.2
Tobacco manufactures	39.1	38.4	38.8	38.7	37.6	38.1	38.4	38.5	38.1	37.3	38.3	38.9
Textile mill products	38.6	38.9	39.7	40.1	38.3	39.1	39.1	38.8	39.6	37.6	39.2	39.6
Apparel and other textile products	35.1	35.7	36.0	36.3	35.3	36.1	36.3	35.6	36.0	35.4	35.8	36.0
Paper and allied products	41.9	42.3	42.8	43.1	42.3	43.0	42.8	43.1	43.3	41.7	42.8	43.1
Printing and publishing	38.0	38.6	38.9	38.9	38.5	39.0	38.9	38.9	38.9	38.8	39.4	40.2
Chemicals and allied products	40.7	40.9	41.1	41.1	40.8	41.0	40.9	41.3	41.2	40.7	41.2	41.2
Petroleum and coal products	40.9	40.8	41.0	40.9	40.7	40.7	40.5	40.8	40.8	40.3	40.6	40.6
Rubber and plastics products, nec	39.2	40.6	40.4	41.8	39.8	40.4	40.8	40.7	41.0	38.4	39.2	39.9
Leather and leather products	36.7	37.4	37.6	37.9	36.9	37.7	38.4	36.9	37.6	36.6	37.2	38.6
Wholesale and retail trade	38.6	38.7	39.1	39.4	39.5	39.5	40.0	40.5	40.5	40.5	40.4	40.5
Wholesale trade	40.2	40.3	40.5	40.7	40.5	40.6	40.7	40.8	40.7	40.8	41.0	41.1
Retail trade	38.1	38.1	38.6	39.0	39.2	39.1	39.8	40.4	40.4	40.4	40.2	40.3
Finance, insurance, real estate[4]	37.1	36.7	36.9	37.6	37.6	37.7	37.8	37.7	37.7	37.8	37.9	37.9

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[1] See footnote 1, table C–3.

[2] Preliminary unweighted average.

[3] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[4] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

Table C–9. Selected Payroll Series on Hours, Earnings, and Labor Turnover: Annual Averages, 1947–69

Year	Average weekly overtime hours			Average hourly earnings excluding overtime [1]			Aggregate weekly man-hours index (1957–59=100)			Aggregate weekly payroll index (1957–59=100)		
	Manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	Manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing
1947	(2)	(2)	(2)	$1.18	$1.24	$1.11	141.1	73.2	104.7	83.1	40.0	60.3
1948	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.29	1.35	1.21	141.8	79.9	103.2	94.6	48.5	64.8
1949	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.34	1.42	1.26	120.8	78.8	92.1	83.2	50.0	60.0
1950	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.39	1.46	1.31	122.8	84.2	101.2	87.3	55.5	68.9
1951	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.51	1.59	1.40	127.9	95.7	108.5	99.0	68.6	80.2
1952	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.59	1.68	1.46	122.7	98.3	108.5	98.8	74.3	84.5
1953	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.68	1.79	1.53	118.0	95.0	113.7	101.3	76.9	93.6
1954	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.73	1.84	1.58	105.1	92.4	101.4	90.1	78.1	85.4
1955	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.79	1.91	1.62	109.9	98.5	108.0	97.0	85.4	94.8
1956	2.8	3.0	2.4	1.89	2.01	1.72	113.5	106.5	108.4	106.2	96.9	100.2
1957	2.3	2.4	2.2	1.99	2.12	1.80	110.8	102.3	104.8	109.1	98.3	101.4
1958	2.0	1.9	2.2	2.05	2.21	1.86	94.4	95.4	93.8	93.7	95.4	93.5
1959	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.12	2.28	1.92	94.8	102.3	101.3	97.2	106.2	105.1
1960	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.20	2.36	1.99	91.5	98.3	99.7	95.6	107.1	106.7
1961	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.25	2.42	2.05	85.6	96.1	96.1	90.6	108.8	105.4
1962	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.31	2.48	2.09	83.3	99.1	100.6	90.2	116.1	113.8
1963	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.37	2.54	2.15	82.3	102.5	101.4	90.7	123.8	117.9
1964	3.1	3.3	2.9	2.44	2.60	2.21	82.7	105.2	103.9	93.1	132.4	124.3
1965	3.6	3.9	3.2	2.51	2.67	2.27	83.0	110.5	110.4	97.1	144.6	136.6
1966	3.9	4.3	3.4	2.59	2.76	2.35	82.5	114.1	118.0	101.0	157.0	151.7
1967	3.4	3.5	3.1	2.72	2.88	2.47	79.4	111.1	115.9	101.5	161.9	155.1
1968	3.6	3.8	3.3	2.88	3.05	2.63	78.6	112.0	117.9	105.5	174.7	167.8
1969 [3]	3.6	3.8	3.4	3.05	3.23	2.79	82.1	119.0	119.5	118.3	201.3	180.2

Year	Spendable average weekly earnings, worker with three dependents											
	In current dollars						In 1957–59 dollars					
	Total private [4]	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing	Wholesale and retail trade	Finance, insurance, real estate [5]	Total private [4]	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing	Wholesale and retail trade	Finance, insurance, real estate [5]
1947	$44.64	$56.42	$55.53	$47.58	$37.69	$42.70	$57.38	$72.52	$71.38	$61.16	$48.44	$54.88
1948	48.51	62.85	62.60	52.31	40.39	45.03	57.89	75.00	74.70	62.42	48.20	53.74
1949	49.74	60.10	64.55	52.95	42.50	47.15	59.93	72.41	77.77	63.80	51.20	56.81
1950	52.04	63.81	65.94	56.36	43.88	49.76	62.10	76.15	78.69	67.26	52.36	59.38
1951	55.79	68.88	71.21	60.18	47.07	53.23	61.65	76.11	78.69	66.50	52.01	58.82
1952	57.87	71.30	75.51	62.98	48.46	55.07	62.56	77.08	81.63	68.09	52.39	59.54
1953	60.31	75.65	78.36	65.60	50.57	57.02	64.71	81.17	84.08	70.39	54.26	61.18
1954	60.85	75.58	80.76	65.65	51.89	58.86	65.01	80.75	86.28	70.14	55.44	62.88
1955	63.41	81.04	82.16	69.79	53.36	60.37	67.96	86.86	88.06	74.80	57.19	64.71
1956	65.82	85.57	86.65	72.25	55.21	61.77	69.50	90.36	91.50	76.29	58.30	65.23
1957	67.71	88.30	89.63	74.31	56.76	63.09	69.09	90.10	91.46	75.83	57.92	64.38
1958	69.11	86.20	92.51	75.23	58.48	65.15	68.63	85.60	91.87	74.71	58.07	64.70
1959	71.86	91.94	95.82	79.40	60.44	67.06	70.80	90.58	94.40	78.23	59.55	66.07
1960	72.96	92.92	99.15	80.11	61.38	68.59	70.77	90.13	96.17	77.70	59.53	66.53
1961	74.48	94.15	103.29	82.18	62.48	70.15	71.48	90.34	99.13	78.87	59.96	67.32
1962	76.77	96.90	106.78	85.53	64.37	73.07	73.05	91.94	101.31	81.15	61.07	69.33
1963	78.56	99.69	110.18	87.58	65.67	75.36	73.63	93.43	103.26	82.08	61.55	70.63
1964	82.57	104.40	116.40	92.18	68.93	78.14	76.38	96.58	107.68	85.27	63.77	72.28
1965	86.30	110.27	122.83	96.78	71.12	81.20	78.53	100.34	111.77	88.06	64.71	73.89
1966	88.66	113.98	127.38	99.45	72.70	83.29	78.39	100.78	112.63	87.93	64.28	73.64
1967	90.86	118.52	134.33	101.26	74.75	85.79	78.13	101.91	115.50	87.07	64.27	73.77
1968	95.28	122.78	140.03	106.75	78.49	90.66	78.61	101.30	115.54	88.08	64.76	74.80
1969 [3]	99.99	131.04	152.57	111.44	81.94	95.22	78.30	102.62	119.48	87.27	64.17	74.57

Labor turnover rates per 100 employees, manufacturing

Year	Accessions		Separations			Year	Accessions		Separations		
	Total	New hires	Total	Quits	Layoffs		Total	New hires	Total	Quits	Layoffs
1947	6.2	(2)	5.7	4.1	1.1	1958	3.6	1.7	4.1	1.1	2.6
1948	5.4	(2)	5.4	3.4	1.6	1959	[6] 4.2	2.6	[6] 4.1	1.5	2.0
1949	4.3	(2)	5.0	1.9	2.9	1960	3.8	2.2	4.3	1.3	2.4
1950	5.3	(2)	4.1	2.3	1.3	1961	4.1	2.2	4.0	1.2	2.2
1951	5.3	4.1	5.3	2.9	1.4	1962	4.1	2.5	4.1	1.4	2.0
1952	5.4	4.1	4.9	2.8	1.4	1963	3.9	2.4	3.9	1.4	1.8
1953	4.8	3.6	5.1	2.8	1.6	1964	4.0	2.6	3.9	1.5	1.7
1954	3.6	1.9	4.1	1.4	2.3	1965	4.3	3.1	4.1	1.9	1.4
1955	4.5	3.0	3.9	1.9	1.5	1966	5.0	3.8	4.6	2.6	1.2
1956	4.2	2.8	4.2	1.9	1.7	1967	4.4	3.3	4.6	2.3	1.4
1957	3.6	2.2	4.2	1.6	2.1	1968	4.6	3.5	4.6	2.5	1.2
						1969 [7]	4.7	3.7	4.9	2.7	1.2

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[1] Prior to the availability of weekly overtime hours beginning 1956, these data were derived by applying adjustment factors to gross average hourly earnings. (See the *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1950, pp. 537–540.)

[2] Not available.

[3] Preliminary unweighted average.

[4] Includes the transportation and public utilities division and the service division, not shown separately.

[5] Excludes data for nonoffice salesmen.

[6] Transfers between establishments of the same firm are included in total accessions and total separations beginning 1959; therefore rates for these items are not strictly comparable with prior data. Transfers comprise part of other accessions and other separations, the rates for which are not shown separately.

[7] Preliminary.

NOTE: For hours and earnings series in mining and manufacturing, data refer to production and related workers; for contract construction, to construction workers; for wholesale and retail trade and finance, insurance, and real estate, to nonsupervisory workers.

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Table D–1. Employees on Payrolls of Nonagricultural Establishments, by Region and State: Annual Averages, 1947–69

[Thousands]

Region and State	1969 [1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958
New England	4,478	4,422	4,330	4,205	4,006	3,871	3,819	3,799	3,722	3,704	3,645	3,529
Maine	327	324	317	309	295	285	280	280	277	278	273	265
New Hampshire	258	252	244	235	221	213	209	208	202	201	193	185
Vermont	145	140	136	131	121	114	112	111	107	108	107	104
Massachusetts	2,236	2,200	2,165	2,105	2,019	1,964	1,951	1,952	1,921	1,910	1,887	1,825
Rhode Island	343	344	338	330	317	304	298	298	292	292	287	277
Connecticut	1,169	1,162	1,130	1,095	1,033	991	969	950	923	915	898	873
Middle Atlantic	13,991	13,750	13,446	13,141	12,689	12,312	12,095	12,050	11,827	11,912	11,776	11,599
New York	7,134	7,011	6,858	6,710	6,519	6,371	6,274	6,261	6,158	6,182	6,128	6,027
New Jersey	2,544	2,487	2,421	2,358	2,256	2,169	2,129	2,096	2,034	2,017	1,971	1,911
Pennsylvania	4,313	4,252	4,167	4,073	3,914	3,773	3,692	3,692	3,635	3,713	3,677	3,660
East North Central	14,692	14,297	13,928	13,605	12,878	12,247	11,889	11,662	11,367	11,643	[2] 11,473	[2] 11,071
Ohio	3,885	3,754	3,620	3,537	3,364	3,216	3,145	3,099	3,044	3,147	3,113	3,007
Indiana	1,870	1,817	1,777	1,737	1,631	1,546	1,499	1,461	1,408	1,431	[2] 1,397	1,333
Illinois	4,369	4,278	4,192	4,078	3,864	3,696	3,599	3,557	3,487	3,522	3,500	3,412
Michigan	3,060	2,981	2,908	2,859	2,687	2,518	2,412	2,337	2,247	2,351	2,297	[2] 2,204
Wisconsin	1,508	1,467	1,431	1,394	1,332	1,271	1,234	1,207	1,180	1,192	1,166	1,115
West North Central	5,283	5,176	5,045	4,878	4,629	4,449	4,343	4,273	4,186	4,193	4,134	4,012
Minnesota	1,284	1,243	1,201	1,150	1,082	1,029	1,003	986	958	960	933	909
Iowa	875	859	837	807	755	720	701	686	680	681	675	647
Missouri	1,641	1,623	1,596	1,553	1,476	1,415	1,380	1,352	1,327	1,345	1,333	1,298
North Dakota	156	154	150	148	146	142	136	131	126	126	128	123
South Dakota	171	167	163	159	155	151	152	153	147	142	138	133
Nebraska	473	459	447	431	416	406	399	393	387	381	369	357
Kansas	683	671	651	630	599	586	573	572	561	559	559	546
South Atlantic	10,060	9,788	9,433	9,074	8,547	8,121	7,818	7,550	7,274	7,213	7,053	6,784
Delaware	208	204	197	193	184	171	163	156	152	154	151	149
Maryland	1,274	1,227	1,182	1,135	1,060	1,012	979	949	911	896	876	855
District of Columbia	683	675	664	641	619	598	585	567	548	536	526	513
Virginia	1,419	1,385	1,330	1,285	1,219	1,163	1,124	1,082	1,035	1,018	1,001	967
West Virginia	510	508	504	495	477	461	450	448	448	460	465	470
North Carolina	1,683	1,647	1,587	1,525	1,426	1,352	1,299	1,259	1,209	1,196	1,164	1,109
South Carolina	786	771	754	735	686	651	631	610	587	583	567	546
Georgia	1,486	1,436	1,391	1,337	1,257	1,187	1,140	1,093	1,051	1,051	1,030	989
Florida	2,011	1,935	1,824	1,728	1,619	1,527	1,447	1,388	1,334	1,321	1,273	1,186
East South Central	3,734	3,649	3,542	3,443	3,239	3,071	2,962	2,861	2,765	2,760	2,716	2,634
Kentucky	889	869	837	804	759	722	703	674	648	654	647	635
Tennessee	1,305	1,270	1,228	1,188	1,109	1,046	1,003	969	934	926	907	875
Alabama	979	961	945	932	886	844	813	792	775	776	764	742
Mississippi	561	549	532	519	485	460	444	426	409	404	397	381
West South Central	5,897	5,685	5,462	5,234	4,934	4,711	4,544	4,418	4,287	4,270	4,235	4,125
Arkansas	528	509	496	485	455	429	415	397	376	367	359	344
Louisiana	1,058	1,037	1,008	966	906	856	817	795	781	790	789	783
Oklahoma	746	727	706	682	648	624	612	602	587	582	573	557
Texas	3,565	3,412	3,252	3,101	2,925	2,801	2,700	2,625	2,544	2,532	2,513	2,442
Mountain	2,542	2,435	2,340	2,282	2,174	2,108	2,066	2,005	1,927	1,875	1,797	1,711
Montana	197	195	190	187	181	176	175	172	167	167	165	162
Idaho	199	193	188	185	178	169	165	165	159	155	155	151
Wyoming	107	103	100	98	97	98	97	96	97	97	93	88
Colorado	707	680	649	625	593	577	566	552	537	515	493	471
New Mexico	285	277	273	272	263	256	249	243	236	236	234	221
Arizona	511	473	446	435	404	389	377	365	347	334	309	287
Utah	347	337	328	318	301	294	295	287	274	265	254	242
Nevada	189	177	166	162	157	149	143	127	110	103	96	88
Pacific	9,077	8,757	8,383	8,078	7,594	7,308	7,074	6,856	6,575	6,463	6,263	5,763
Washington	1,124	1,100	1,046	989	897	855	851	857	819	813	813	790
Oregon	704	678	651	639	607	573	549	528	509	509	498	475
California	6,894	6,644	6,367	6,145	5,800	5,607	5,412	5,218	4,996	4,896	4,775	4,499
Alaska	85	80	77	73	71	65	62	59	57	57	--------	--------
Hawaii	270	255	242	232	219	208	200	195	194	189	177	-------

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–1. Employees on Payrolls of Nonagricultural Establishments, by Region and State: Annual Averages, 1947–69—Continued

Region and State	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
New England	3,648	3,647	3,549	3,492	3,587	3,514	3,506	3,345	3,234	3,373	3,333
Maine	274	279	275	270	276	276	272	254	252	265	263
New Hampshire	189	187	184	177	178	176	175	168	164	173	169
Vermont	103	106	102	102	104	100	100	97	95	99	99
Massachusetts	1,873	1,866	1,818	1,792	1,845	1,810	1,823	1,761	1,712	1,760	1,731
Rhode Island	285	296	295	291	304	304	308	299	281	299	298
Connecticut	922	913	875	860	880	848	829	766	730	776	774
Middle Atlantic	11,991	11,852	11,530	11,342	11,696	11,451	11,361	10,876	10,623	10,979	10,813
New York	6,179	6,093	5,917	5,828	5,936	5,828	5,755	5,576	5,473	5,596	5,518
New Jersey	1,968	1,934	1,865	1,821	1,850	1,804	1,768	1,657	1,596	1,657	1,623
Pennsylvania	3,843	3,826	3,748	3,692	3,910	3,819	3,838	3,643	3,[illegible]	3,725	3,672
East North Central	11,725	11,750	11,503	11,055	11,569	11,071	10,940	10,368	9,[illegible]6	10,327	10,067
Ohio	3,230	3,220	3,129	3,028	3,150	3,006	2,953	2,76[illegible]	2,655	2,786	2,708
Indiana	1,408	1,406	1,377	1,320	1,422	1,360	1,353	1,272	1,188	1,227	1,194
Illinois	3,558	3,538	3,410	3,317	3,444	3,350	3,297	3,160	3,088	3,206	3,165
Michigan	2,376	2,440	2,479	2,321	2,456	2,275	2,266	2,154	2,019	2,094	2,014
Wisconsin	1,152	1,147	1,108	1,070	1,097	1,080	1,071	1,022	987	1,015	986
West North Central	4,058	4,032	3,943	3,881	3,946	3,879	3,798	3,608	3,493	3,525	3,414
Minnesota	919	909	882	863	875	844	836	803	775	793	766
Iowa	654	649	632	619	632	630	631	610	593	596	577
Missouri	1,322	1,314	1,286	1,267	1,308	1,289	1,257	1,185	1,143	1,162	1,136
North Dakota	121	120	116	117	115	113	109	109	106	103	97
South Dakota	132	133	128	125	125	122	120	119	116	115	110
Nebraska	356	357	355	348	349	344	334	319	312	313	301
Kansas	554	550	544	541	544	538	511	464	448	443	427
South Atlantic	6,828	6,690	6,392	6,122	6,233	6,153	5,964	5,564	5,325	5,420	5,269
Delaware	154	157	144	135	139	134	129	121	113	115	111
Maryland	882	870	835	803	815	793	769	716	686	697	673
District of Columbia	514	509	503	499	517	537	534	498	489	483	477
Virginia	972	956	912	880	903	898	869	805	775	786	772
West Virginia	509	502	481	475	513	526	538	524	523	551	520
North Carolina	1,101	1,099	1,059	1,012	1,024	1,007	987	928	868	895	880
South Carolina	545	543	533	520	544	544	506	461	443	456	436
Georgia	997	994	960	915	930	905	872	807	770	779	759
Florida	1,153	1,060	966	883	849	809	760	704	657	658	641
East South Central	2,665	2,635	2,545	2,458	2,521	2,467	2,401	2,247	2,160	2,242	2,148
Kentucky	657	649	620	599	631	620	599	557	537	557	530
Tennessee	887	887	868	842	853	827	806	759	722	754	717
Alabama	755	735	703	678	693	681	663	620	605	629	610
Mississippi	367	364	354	340	344	340	334	312	297	303	291
West South Central	4,155	4,064	3,889	3,751	3,791	3,736	3,596	3,333	3,218	3,225	3,059
Arkansas	337	333	321	311	320	323	319	298	288	294	286
Louisiana	803	772	726	709	711	684	670	636	623	618	592
Oklahoma	565	563	551	531	535	527	504	477	466	463	437
Texas	2,450	2,396	2,291	2,200	2,225	2,202	2,104	1,921	1,841	1,850	1,743
Mountain	1,685	1,625	1,538	1,462	1,475	1,442	1,375	1,276	1,221	1,221	1,170
Montana	165	169	162	157	157	155	151	149	147	145	138
Idaho	148	145	139	133	136	138	139	132	126	125	123
Wyoming	88	88	86	86	88	86	83	80	79	80	73
Colorado	471	452	433	412	417	413	393	358	338	345	335
New Mexico	210	198	183	175	179	171	161	152	141	134	123
Arizona	273	251	226	209	208	198	181	162	154	155	146
Utah	242	236	225	213	219	216	209	190	184	184	179
Nevada	88	86	85	76	72	66	59	54	51	53	54
Pacific	5,808	5,629	5,326	5,064	5,098	4,952	4,715	4,331	4,178	4,[illegible]81	4,171
Washington	803	785	768	741	749	746	735	684	671	[illegible]86	671
Oregon	480	492	475	456	469	468	462	438	419	433	420
California	4,525	4,352	4,083	3,866	3,881	3,738	3,518	3,209	3,088	3,163	3,080
Alaska	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
Hawaii	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.
[2] Data are not strictly comparable with earlier years from this year forward.

NOTE: Data for several States have been revised because of recent benchmark adjustments.

SOURCE: State agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–2. Employees on Payrolls of Manufacturing Establishments, by Region and State: Annual Averages, 1947–69

[Thousands]

Region and State	1969 [1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958
New England	1,537	1,556	1,566	1,549	1,460	1,411	1,423	1,453	1,428	1,452	1,450	1,382
Maine	116	118	116	115	108	104	103	104	103	105	103	100
New Hampshire	98	100	98	96	90	86	86	89	86	87	87	81
Vermont	44	44	44	43	39	35	35	36	34	35	36	33
Massachusetts	683	690	701	696	666	650	664	688	685	698	698	666
Rhode Island	126	127	127	128	121	116	116	119	117	120	120	113
Connecticut	470	477	480	471	436	421	421	418	404	407	407	389
Middle Atlantic	4,333	4,331	4,325	4,333	4,163	4,030	4,010	4,050	3,992	4,127	4,102	4,040
New York	1,880	1,885	1,886	1,895	1,838	1,795	1,804	1,838	1,823	1,879	1,893	1,867
New Jersey	891	886	882	878	836	806	809	813	791	809	801	775
Pennsylvania	1,562	1,560	1,557	1,560	1,489	1,429	1,397	1,399	1,378	1,440	1,408	1,397
East North Central	5,283	5,200	5,156	5,193	4,895	4,621	4,495	4,417	4,233	4,495	4,485	[2] 4,236
Ohio	1,460	1,430	1,399	1,402	1,324	1,257	1,235	1,216	1,181	1,263	1,263	1,197
Indiana	748	723	716	720	674	631	615	602	568	594	584	548
Illinois	1,392	1,384	1,393	1,393	1,302	1,238	1,204	1,199	1,165	1,211	1,226	1,172
Michigan	1,170	1,155	1,139	1,169	1,103	1,026	981	944	879	968	952	[2] 887
Wisconsin	513	508	509	509	492	470	461	456	439	460	460	432
West North Central	1,256	1,250	1,226	1,183	1,085	1,042	1,020	1,008	978	1,003	998	957
Minnesota	320	313	303	288	262	247	243	240	229	230	225	219
Iowa	223	222	219	212	192	183	179	174	171	177	178	165
Missouri	455	458	454	445	417	403	394	387	376	393	391	375
North Dakota	9	9	9	9	9	8	8	7	6	7	7	7
South Dakota	16	16	15	14	14	13	15	14	14	13	13	13
Nebraska	87	84	80	75	69	68	67	68	67	67	64	60
Kansas	146	148	146	140	122	121	116	118	115	116	120	120
South Atlantic	2,578	2,636	2,570	2,509	2,349	2,230	2,163	2,113	2,028	2,041	2,004	1,911
Delaware	73	73	72	71	68	62	59	56	55	59	58	58
Maryland	282	280	283	280	265	258	260	259	257	260	257	258
District of Columbia	20	21	21	21	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Virginia	366	363	346	340	323	309	298	292	276	275	270	258
West Virginia	132	132	133	133	129	126	124	123	120	125	127	122
North Carolina	695	686	664	644	596	562	542	531	509	509	497	470
South Carolina	331	324	320	314	293	278	270	260	247	245	238	227
Georgia	466	449	438	431	403	378	363	350	333	341	339	320
Florida	313	308	293	275	252	237	229	222	211	207	199	180
East South Central	1,203	1,177	1,133	1,113	1,023	952	910	875	829	844	835	797
Kentucky	244	241	232	227	206	192	183	175	166	172	171	161
Tennessee	467	455	436	425	387	362	345	332	314	316	308	290
Alabama	314	306	298	295	277	257	247	240	231	237	238	233
Mississippi	178	175	167	166	153	140	134	128	119	120	119	113
West South Central	1,200	1,164	1,105	1,050	969	917	875	847	814	820	818	800
Arkansas	165	157	152	148	134	125	119	113	105	102	99	90
Louisiana	180	178	173	165	158	152	146	139	136	142	143	144
Oklahoma	126	121	116	113	103	97	91	90	87	87	87	85
Texas	729	708	664	624	574	543	518	504	487	490	489	481
Mountain	359	337	321	318	290	290	290	285	274	264	247	229
Montana	24	23	22	23	22	22	22	22	20	20	20	20
Idaho	39	38	35	36	33	32	30	31	30	29	29	26
Wyoming	7	7	7	7	7	8	7	7	8	8	8	7
Colorado	114	107	103	99	90	91	93	93	92	88	81	75
New Mexico	20	18	18	18	17	18	17	17	16	17	17	16
Arizona	93	85	79	78	65	60	58	55	51	49	46	41
Utah	54	52	50	50	49	52	55	54	50	47	42	39
Nevada	8	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	5	5
Pacific	2,150	2,132	2,068	1,994	1,827	1,791	1,794	1,789	1,706	1,710	1,710	1,573
Washington	280	287	277	265	227	219	224	233	218	217	226	219
Oregon	180	174	165	167	158	152	145	143	139	144	147	137
California	1,658	1,640	1,594	1,531	1,411	1,389	1,394	1,383	1,318	1,317	1,313	1,217
Alaska	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	6	5	6	-------	-------
Hawaii	25	24	25	24	25	25	25	25	26	26	25	-------

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–2. Employees on Payrolls of Manufacturing Establishments, by Region and State: Annual Averages, 1947–69—Continued

Region and State	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
New England	1,488	1,521	1,484	1,472	1,600	1,554	1,564	1,469	1,391	1,530	1,543
Maine	107	111	108	107	115	116	116	109	106	114	115
New Hampshire	84	84	83	80	83	82	83	79	75	83	84
Vermont	37	39	37	38	41	39	40	37	35	39	41
Massachusetts	706	719	701	692	752	733	747	716	685	733	731
Rhode Island	121	129	132	130	146	146	151	148	135	154	155
Connecticut	433	439	423	425	462	437	427	380	354	408	419
Middle Atlantic	4,396	4,412	4,328	4,297	4,623	4,436	4,416	4,153	3,994	4,329	4,331
New York	2,024	2,042	2,007	2,006	2,119	2,045	2,007	1,916	1,853	1,977	1,994
New Jersey	835	835	811	802	856	833	821	756	722	786	783
Pennsylvania	1,536	1,535	1,510	1,489	1,648	1,558	1,588	1,481	1,419	1,567	1,554
East North Central	4,769	4,882	4,894	4,632	5,168	4,822	4,805	4,493	4,195	4,552	4,557
Ohio	1,369	1,391	1,368	1,312	1,444	1,355	1,337	1,218	1,140	1,260	1,267
Indiana	617	623	629	590	681	626	624	580	520	561	556
Illinois	1,294	1,315	1,275	1,228	1,340	1,271	1,262	1,198	1,142	1,230	1,253
Michigan	1,026	1,081	1,164	1,061	1,222	1,097	1,112	1,063	981	1,058	1,042
Wisconsin	464	471	458	442	480	474	470	435	412	444	439
West North Central	1,008	1,002	985	984	1,052	1,008	959	874	841	871	864
Minnesota	230	226	216	216	231	220	214	201	193	204	205
Iowa	170	173	171	165	176	174	171	154	150	155	152
Missouri	397	395	389	388	421	395	378	354	340	355	355
North Dakota	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	6	6
South Dakota	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
Nebraska	61	61	62	61	64	62	57	52	51	52	52
Kansas	131	127	129	136	141	139	120	95	89	87	84
South Atlantic	1,966	1,956	1,904	1,813	1,879	1,818	1,794	1,682	1,589	1,695	1,662
Delaware	62	61	59	57	61	59	56	51	48	50	47
Maryland	278	277	266	259	275	263	259	233	224	240	235
District of Columbia	20	19	19	19	20	20	20	19	19	19	19
Virginia	265	263	255	247	259	251	245	230	222	238	237
West Virginia	133	133	131	127	138	136	140	131	129	142	139
North Carolina	470	471	460	437	449	435	433	418	387	415	412
South Carolina	232	234	231	220	227	222	220	210	201	211	203
Georgia	331	339	335	312	321	311	307	287	265	282	276
Florida	175	160	147	135	129	121	114	102	95	98	96
East South Central	828	828	806	755	789	750	740	693	654	719	710
Kentucky	172	175	168	154	162	151	153	140	132	141	138
Tennessee	302	305	297	280	294	278	268	250	238	261	256
Alabama	246	242	236	226	235	226	225	216	206	227	224
Mississippi	107	107	105	96	99	95	94	86	77	90	92
West South Central	830	825	790	761	784	754	720	650	622	648	625
Arkansas	88	90	86	81	83	82	83	76	70	77	75
Louisiana	153	155	155	156	166	155	151	145	144	157	157
Oklahoma	90	93	89	83	85	80	73	66	64	67	62
Texas	499	487	461	442	450	437	413	364	344	347	331
Mountain	230	223	208	194	199	196	188	168	157	164	160
Montana	20	21	20	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
Idaho	26	28	26	24	24	24	25	22	21	22	21
Wyoming	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	7	7
Colorado	76	72	69	68	71	70	69	62	57	60	60
New Mexico	15	14	12	11	11	11	11	10	9	9	8
Arizona	41	37	33	28	29	29	24	17	15	16	15
Utah	39	37	35	33	34	32	32	29	29	28	27
Nevada	6	6	6	5	5	4	4	4	3	4	4
Pacific	1,648	1,579	1,475	1,383	1,408	1,339	1,240	1,076	1,003	1,053	1,035
Washington	226	213	208	195	201	197	197	179	174	179	178
Oregon	139	148	146	139	146	148	150	138	128	140	135
California	1,284	1,218	1,121	1,049	1,061	995	893	760	702	734	722
Alaska	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Hawaii	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.

[2] Beginning 1958, data are not strictly comparable with earlier years.

NOTE: Data for several States have been revised because of recent benchmark adjustments.

SOURCE: State agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–3. Total Unemployment by State: Annual Averages, 1957–69

[Thousands]

State	1969 [1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
Alabama	51	57	55	51	56	61	72	80	84	73	73	94	(2)
Alaska	9	9	8	8	8	7	7	7	7	6	7	7	5
Arizona	19	22	24	21	27	26	25	25	28	22	20	24	15
Arkansas	30	31	31	31	35	36	38	43	44	37	35	44	32
California	372	366	389	375	429	422	411	389	446	367	292	377	243
Colorado	26	25	26	25	27	28	35	32	32	25	22	26	18
Connecticut	52	50	43	40	47	55	56	57	74	60	70	91	46
Delaware	8	7	8	7	7	8	8	9	11	8	10	11	(3)
Dist. of Columbia [3]	27	27	26	27	24	26	24	21	24	22	21	25	19
Florida	68	69	56	61	68	81	101	107	126	95	84	97	58
Georgia	56	61	60	58	63	71	77	83	106	85	(2)	(2)	(2)
Hawaii	9	9	10	9	9	10	12	12	10	8	7	8	8
Idaho	12	12	12	11	12	14	15	15	17	14	13	15	12
Illinois	146	148	150	136	151	171	194	206	256	185	210	274	161
Indiana	58	67	66	52	60	76	82	90	122	97	91	145	82
Iowa	32	29	29	24	26	30	33	36	43	33	29	35	30
Kansas	26	23	24	23	29	30	32	31	39	33	29	36	26
Kentucky	41	45	51	45	52	59	60	70	87	72	(2)	(2)	(2)
Louisiana	72	66	63	56	63	69	77	87	99	75	69	(2)	(2)
Maine	19	16	15	16	18	25	25	25	31	27	25	31	20
Maryland	44	45	42	41	50	55	60	65	72	62	64	70	39
Massachusetts	99	102	101	102	115	132	135	125	135	115	116	149	92
Michigan	147	151	154	117	125	148	166	205	301	198	251	418	202
Minnesota	48	51	49	48	61	71	72	73	84	67	75	99	63
Mississippi	34	36	38	33	36	44	47	49	61	50	(2)	(2)	(2)
Missouri	67	68	68	65	71	79	89	98	112	84	78	104	75
Montana	12	13	13	13	13	14	14	14	18	17	15	19	13
Nebraska	15	16	16	17	20	20	21	21	22	17	18	21	20
Nevada	10	11	12	12	12	10	9	7	9	7	7	9	6
New Hampshire	7	5	6	5	8	10	11	10	12	11	10	13	9
New Jersey	133	133	128	123	140	162	169	159	186	169	176	223	157
New Mexico	13	18	18	18	19	21	20	19	22	18	11	12	10
New York	285	285	315	335	360	395	415	400	480	130	(2)	(2)	(2)
North Carolina	64	68	71	65	83	93	98	99	118	100	(2)	(2)	(2)
North Dakota	10	10	10	11	13	13	13	14	17	13	11	12	7
Ohio	120	125	135	122	145	167	197	220	287	210	184	306	151
Oklahoma	35	35	34	35	40	43	47	47	55	45	41	50	(2)
Oregon	40	39	41	35	37	39	38	41	47	35	3[illegible]	52	41
Pennsylvania	142	156	165	163	206	276	333	364	427	375	424	498	301
Puerto Rico	84	93	96	96	89	80	81	84	82	76	99	89	82
Rhode Island	14	14	14	14	18	22	25	24	28	24	27	40	32
South Carolina	42	45	47	42	45	51	55	53	65	51	38	48	41
South Dakota	8	8	8	9	10	11	11	8	8	8	7	8	(2)
Tennessee	59	60	63	51	61	73	87	86	99	81	82	122	89
Texas	124	117	120	130	168	186	204	195	220	190	165	186	142
Utah	22	21	20	18	22	21	19	17	17	15	14	16	11
Vermont	6	7	7	7	8	10	11	10	11	8	7	10	(2)
Virginia	48	47	48	45	48	53	54	58	69	61	59	72	48
Washington	67	59	55	52	63	74	71	63	74	69	62	76	55
West Virginia	35	40	40	43	48	53	62	74	86	76	(2)	(2)	(2)
Wisconsin	63	64	65	57	60	66	69	68	82	65	52	82	49
Wyoming	6	5	5	5	6	7	9	9	9	6	(2)	(2)	(2)

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[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.

[2] Comparable data not available.

[3] Data relate to the standard metropolitan statistical area.

NOTE: Data are based on payroll, unemployment insurance, and other work force records and are not affected by the definitional changes for measuring unemployment on a national basis which were adopted beginning 1967.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–4. Total Unemployment Rates by State: Annual Averages, 1957–69

[Total unemployment as percent of total work force]

State	1969 [1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
Alabama	4.0	4.5	4.4	4.1	4.4	5.0	6.0	6.8	7.2	6.3	6.4	8.1	(2)
Alaska	8.9	9.1	8.8	9.1	8.6	8.5	9.4	9.4	9.9	8.0	9.5	10.3	8.0
Arizona	2.9	3.6	4.1	3.7	5.1	5.1	5.0	5.1	5.8	4.7	4.7	5.7	3.9
Arkansas	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.5	5.2	5.5	5.9	6.7	7.1	6.1	5.9	7.5	5.7
California	4.5	4.5	5.0	4.9	5.9	6.0	6.0	5.8	6.9	5.8	4.8	6.4	4.2
Colorado	3.1	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.5	3.7	4.6	4.3	4.4	3.7	3.3	4.0	2.7
Connecticut	3.9	3.7	3.3	3.2	3.9	4.7	4.9	5.1	6.7	5.6	6.4	8.4	4.2
Delaware	3.1	3.1	3.3	2.9	2.9	4.0	3.9	4.6	5.6	4.2	4.9	5.9	(2)
Dist. of Columbia [3]	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.7	3.2	2.5
Florida	2.6	2.8	2.4	2.7	3.1	3.8	5.0	5.4	6.6	5.2	4.5	5.5	3.5
Georgia	3.0	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.8	4.5	5.0	5.6	7.1	5.8	(2)	(2)	(2)
Hawaii	2.7	2.9	3.5	3.2	3.4	3.9	4.8	4.5	4.0	3.1	3.1	3.6	3.7
Idaho	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.0	4.2	5.2	5.6	5.5	6.4	5.4	5.0	5.9	4.6
Illinois	2.9	3.0	3.1	2.8	3.3	3.8	4.4	4.7	5.8	4.2	4.8	6.3	3.7
Indiana	2.7	3.2	3.2	2.6	3.1	4.0	4.4	4.9	6.8	5.2	5.1	8.2	4.6
Iowa	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.8	3.0	2.6	3.2	2.8
Kansas	3.0	2.7	2.8	2.7	3.6	3.7	4.0	3.8	4.8	4.1	3.6	4.4	3.2
Kentucky	3.6	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.6	5.5	5.6	6.6	8.1	7.1	(2)	(2)	(2)
Louisiana	5.2	4.8	4.7	4.3	4.9	5.6	6.4	7.3	8.3	6.5	6.0	(2)	(2)
Maine	4.6	4.1	3.9	4.2	4.9	6.2	6.9	6.9	8.4	7.4	6.7	8.5	5.3
Maryland	3.0	3.2	3.1	3.1	4.0	4.5	5.0	5.6	6.3	5.6	5.8	6.4	3.6
Massachusetts	3.9	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.9	5.7	5.8	5.4	5.9	5.1	5.4	7.0	4.4
Michigan	4.1	4.3	4.6	3.5	3.9	4.8	5.5	6.9	10.2	6.7	8.5	13.8	6.6
Minnesota	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.1	4.0	4.7	4.8	4.9	5.7	4.6	5.3	7.0	4.5
Mississippi	4.2	4.5	4.8	4.2	4.7	5.7	6.2	6.5	8.0	6.7	(2)	(2)	(2)
Missouri	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.7	4.2	4.8	5.3	6.0	4.6	4.2	5.6	4.1
Montana	4.4	4.7	4.8	4.7	5.0	5.3	5.4	5.5	7.3	6.7	5.9	7.6	5.2
Nebraska	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.4	2.7	2.8	3.3	3.2
Nevada	4.4	5.0	5.7	5.9	6.4	5.6	5.0	5.0	6.6	5.8	5.8	7.8	5.2
New Hampshire	2.3	1.8	2.0	1.8	2.8	3.9	4.4	3.8	4.8	4.1	4.0	5.3	3.7
New Jersey	4.5	4.6	4.5	4.4	5.1	6.0	6.4	6.1	7.2	6.7	7.0	9.0	6.4
New Mexico	4.9	5.1	5.1	5.1	5.5	5.9	5.8	5.6	6.5	5.4	3.5	4.0	3.2
New York	3.5	3.5	3.9	4.2	4.6	5.1	5.4	5.2	6.2	5.6	(2)	(2)	(2)
North Carolina	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.2	4.2	4.8	5.1	5.3	6.4	5.5	(2)	(2)	(2)
North Dakota	3.9	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.9	5.0	4.9	5.3	6.8	5.0	4.1	4.5	2.5
Ohio	2.8	2.9	3.2	3.0	3.6	4.3	5.1	5.7	7.4	5.3	4.7	7.8	3.8
Oklahoma	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.6	4.3	4.7	5.1	5.1	5.9	4.9	4.5	5.6	(2)
Oregon	4.4	4.4	4.8	4.2	4.6	5.0	5.1	5.5	6.4	4.9	5.0	7.5	5.9
Pennsylvania	2.8	3.2	3.4	3.4	4.4	6.0	7.2	7.8	9.2	8.0	8.9	10.5	6.4
Puerto Rico	10.3	11.6	12.2	12.3	11.2	10.7	11.3	12.3	12.5	12.1	13.8	13.9	13.0
Rhode Island	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.7	4.9	6.2	6.9	6.6	8.0	6.7	7.6	11.4	9.1
South Carolina	4.1	4.4	4.7	4.2	4.7	5.4	5.7	5.7	6.9	5.7	4.2	5.5	4.7
South Dakota	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.3	3.9	3.9	3.8	2.8	3.1	2.9	2.7	3.0	(2)
Tennessee	3.5	3.6	3.9	3.2	4.0	4.9	5.9	6.0	7.6	6.3	6.4	9.4	7.1
Texas	2.7	2.7	2.8	3.2	4.2	4.8	5.4	5.3	6.0	5.3	4.6	5.3	4.0
Utah	5.2	5.1	4.9	4.6	5.7	5.7	5.1	4.6	5.0	4.6	4.4	5.2	3.6
Vermont	3.2	3.6	3.9	3.8	4.8	6.1	6.7	6.1	7.0	5.4	4.7	6.8	(2)
Virginia	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.7	3.0	3.4	3.6	3.9	4.7	4.2	4.2	5.2	3.5
Washington	4.8	4.3	4.3	4.1	5.4	6.5	6.2	5.5	6.8	6.4	5.7	7.2	5.2
West Virginia	5.6	6.4	6.4	6.8	7.8	8.8	10.3	12.0	13.5	11.9	(2)	(2)	(2)
Wisconsin	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.2	3.4	3.9	4.1	4.1	5.0	3.9	3.2	5.1	3.0
Wyoming	4.1	4.1	4.0	3.9	4.4	4.7	6.3	6.5	6.4	4.4	(2)	(2)	(2)

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[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.
[2] Comparable data not available.
[3] Data relate to the standard metropolitan statistical area.

NOTE: Data are based on payroll, unemployment insurance, and other work force records and are not affected by the definitional changes for measuring unemployment on a national basis which were adopted beginning 1967.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–5. Insured Unemployment Under State Programs, by State: Annual Averages, 1957–69

[Thousands]

State	1969	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
United States	1,100.0	1,110.6	1,204.5	1,061.4	1,327.6	1,605.4	1,805.8	1,783.1	2,290.3	1,905.8	1,682.5	2,508.9	1,449.8
Alabama	14.2	17.1	17.2	13.6	14.9	17.9	22.9	25.9	32.1	28.7	26.7	36.8	22.2
Alaska	3.6	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.1	3.0	3.5	3.5	4.1	3.0	3.5	3.9	3.2
Arizona	5.1	7.1	8.5	6.8	10.9	10.5	9.8	9.7	11.0	8.3	7.9	9.4	5.2
Arkansas	10.0	10.3	11.1	9.6	12.1	13.9	15.5	16.5	20.5	16.7	13.9	19.7	14.4
California	178.3	177.6	200.1	186.4	233.1	231.1	227.6	208.8	243.8	206.8	145.4	218.2	121.6
Colorado	3.8	4.0	5.4	5.0	7.0	7.6	10.9	10.7	10.7	9.0	6.6	9.0	4.9
Connecticut	23.9	22.5	17.5	13.7	20.3	27.4	28.4	26.7	37.9	34.1	31.7	51.8	24.1
Delaware	2.8	2.7	3.0	2.5	2.5	3.6	3.5	4.2	5.3	3.9	4.1	5.3	3.0
Dist. of Columbia	3.8	4.2	4.1	3.9	4.9	5.5	6.0	5.2	5.9	5.1	4.6	6.2	4.5
Florida	18.9	20.4	19.9	18.1	21.2	25.5	30.8	34.8	42.4	31.9	26.4	32.6	18.3
Georgia	10.7	12.8	15.9	12.1	15.3	19.7	23.1	25.3	37.9	31.7	27.0	39.9	27.0
Hawaii	3.7	4.0	5.3	4.3	4.6	5.1	6.7	6.7	5.9	3.7	3.0	3.3	2.8
Idaho	4.3	4.5	4.8	4.1	4.3	5.6	5.8	5.8	6.9	5.8	4.9	6.0	5.0
Illinois	43.7	47.6	47.5	37.8	52.1	67.6	83.8	83.0	112.0	90.3	84.2	139.6	67.6
Indiana	15.6	19.3	20.2	13.7	18.5	26.4	30.1	33.6	51.7	40.1	32.0	62.2	33.1
Iowa	8.3	7.3	6.9	4.9	6.7	8.5	9.3	11.0	15.0	11.9	8.0	11.7	8.8
Kansas	7.3	5.7	6.1	5.5	8.4	9.5	10.4	9.7	12.7	12.8	9.3	12.7	8.5
Kentucky	13.5	14.2	14.9	12.0	15.8	20.3	21.5	24.9	34.9	29.6	26.3	45.5	32.6
Louisiana	21.1	16.9	17.2	13.1	16.7	19.3	23.2	26.1	33.8	28.5	25.3	26.2	13.0
Maine	8.1	6.4	5.7	5.4	6.6	9.3	11.0	10.5	15.7	13.7	13.5	18.9	10.9
Maryland	14.1	15.4	14.7	13.1	18.3	23.1	25.9	30.0	36.7	33.7	32.6	37.8	17.2
Massachusetts	48.6	48.1	50.8	48.3	60.1	77.1	83.7	74.2	85.8	76.2	64.9	90.0	61.1
Michigan	52.8	55.9	62.2	40.5	38.2	52.1	62.5	76.4	131.9	93.9	88.4	199.8	92.9
Minnesota	12.7	14.8	15.0	15.3	21.7	27.9	29.8	28.3	35.2	28.9	26.5	35.8	22.3
Mississippi	7.1	7.4	8.2	6.3	7.8	11.4	13.2	13.4	19.0	15.4	13.3	18.1	14.6
Missouri	25.3	24.0	25.8	22.5	25.6	30.9	35.8	38.0	47.9	39.7	33.0	47.3	30.0
Montana	3.6	3.7	4.1	3.8	4.3	5.0	4.9	5.3	8.4	7.7	7.2	8.6	6.0
Nebraska	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	5.3	5.4	6.1	6.0	6.5	5.4	4.2	6.2	5.2
Nevada	4.2	4.9	5.8	5.5	5.7	5.3	4.1	3.6	4.6	3.6	3.2	4.5	2.7
New Hampshire	2.1	1.6	2.2	1.5	3.3	5.6	6.9	5.3	7.5	6.4	5.9	9.6	5.9
New Jersey	61.7	61.1	59.6	54.0	64.7	78.9	86.4	80.3	93.8	85.1	81.5	115.8	79.6
New Mexico	4.4	4.8	5.0	4.7	5.6	6.0	6.3	6.4	8.3	6.5	4.0	4.9	3.3
New York	138.5	137.2	161.0	169.6	201.7	237.0	263.1	241.3	287.6	252.6	255.5	318.2	187.1
North Carolina	19.2	20.7	24.1	19.6	25.2	33.2	36.2	35.0	47.2	38.0	34.3	51.4	38.9
North Dakota	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.8	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.5	4.2	3.8	3.1	3.2	2.4
Ohio	32.2	35.3	44.1	33.0	46.3	66.8	87.9	96.7	138.9	112.6	71.6	156.6	65.1
Oklahoma	9.5	10.1	10.5	10.3	13.1	15.1	17.3	16.8	21.3	17.8	14.8	20.0	12.3
Oregon	17.3	15.8	19.1	14.6	15.7	18.1	18.4	19.5	26.0	20.0	16.7	26.5	22.6
Pennsylvania	65.4	69.4	74.2	62.5	86.0	127.6	169.3	181.2	234.9	197.6	198.4	283.0	156.4
Puerto Rico [1]	34.9	30.6	31.6	30.3	33.0	32.1	30.5	15.7	15.1	----	----	----	----
Rhode Island	9.0	8.5	8.2	7.1	8.5	11.2	13.0	11.9	14.7	12.9	12.6	19.4	16.3
South Carolina	9.7	10.0	12.6	8.3	10.4	13.3	14.3	13.3	18.3	14.1	12.8	19.1	15.0
South Dakota	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.5	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.2	2.2	2.1	1.5	1.8	1.7
Tennessee	22.3	21.9	24.6	16.7	20.7	27.0	32.5	34.8	45.3	37.0	31.1	49.6	39.2
Texas	20.4	19.5	22.9	25.3	38.2	45.2	52.9	50.0	59.8	54.0	47.1	61.2	30.2
Utah	6.2	6.3	6.6	5.8	7.9	8.0	7.2	6.2	7.0	6.0	5.4	6.9	4.3
Vermont	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.1	2.8	3.8	4.5	3.5	4.6	3.4	2.8	4.4	2.8
Virginia	6.8	6.5	7.8	6.4	8.9	12.0	13.6	14.6	21.6	18.3	17.1	23.8	13.3
Washington	33.4	25.9	25.7	22.1	31.4	41.1	40.8	36.1	45.3	41.3	34.8	43.6	32.0
West Virginia	10.2	11.2	10.7	9.7	11.8	14.7	18.6	21.3	27.6	25.4	28.4	39.7	14.1
Wisconsin	17.4	21.1	21.6	17.3	19.6	25.3	27.4	26.8	39.5	28.9	23.2	41.1	23.0
Wyoming	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.7	2.0	3.0	3.2	3.2	2.3	2.0	2.4	1.6

[1] Program effective January 1961, with program for sugarcane workers effective July 1963.

NOTE: Comparability between years for a given State or for the same year among States is affected by changes or differences in statutory or administrative factors.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–6. Insured Unemployment Rates Under State Programs, by State: Annual Averages, 1957–69

[Insured unemployment as percent of average covered employment]

State	1969	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
United States	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.3	3.0	3.8	4.3	4.4	5.6	4.8	4.4	6.4	3.6
Alabama	2.1	2.6	2.6	2.2	2.6	3.2	4.3	5.0	6.1	5.5	5.2	7.1	4.2
Alaska	7.6	8.2	8.2	8.5	8.4	8.9	10.6	10.8	12.3	9.8	12.5	13.6	10.7
Arizona	1.5	2.3	2.8	2.4	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.9	4.7	3.8	3.9	4.7	2.8
Arkansas	2.6	2.8	3.1	2.8	3.7	4.5	5.2	5.9	7.6	6.3	5.6	7.9	5.8
California	3.5	3.7	4.2	4.2	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.4	6.4	5.5	4.1	6.2	3.4
Colorado	.8	.9	1.3	1.3	1.8	2.0	2.9	2.9	3.1	2.8	2.2	3.0	1.6
Connecticut	2.5	2.4	1.9	1.6	2.5	3.4	3.6	3.5	5.0	4.6	4.4	7.0	3.1
Delaware	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.9	2.7	2.8	3.4	4.3	3.1	3.3	4.3	2.4
Dist. of Columbia	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.0	2.3	2.0	1.9	2.6	1.8
Florida	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.6	2.0	2.6	3.2	3.8	4.7	3.6	3.2	4.0	2.4
Georgia	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.3	1.8	2.4	3.0	3.4	5.0	4.3	3.8	5.6	3.8
Hawaii	1.7	1.9	2.6	2.3	2.6	3.0	4.0	3.9	3.4	2.7	2.6	3.0	2.6
Idaho	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.0	3.4	4.5	4.4	4.9	6.0	5.1	4.6	5.6	4.8
Illinois	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.9	2.5	3.2	3.2	4.3	3.4	3.3	5.3	2.5
Indiana	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.1	1.6	2.3	2.7	3.2	4.7	3.8	3.1	5.9	3.0
Iowa	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.0	1.4	1.9	2.1	2.5	3.3	2.7	1.9	2.8	2.1
Kansas	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.5	2.3	2.7	2.9	2.8	3.7	3.6	2.7	3.6	2.4
Kentucky	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.3	3.2	4.3	4.7	5.7	7.8	6.7	6.1	10.4	7.2
Louisiana	2.9	2.4	2.5	2.1	2.8	3.4	4.3	4.9	6.1	5.1	4.6	4.6	2.3
Maine	3.7	2.9	2.7	2.7	3.4	4.9	5.7	5.5	8.2	7.2	7.3	10.1	5.6
Maryland	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7	2.4	3.1	3.6	4.4	5.4	5.0	5.0	5.6	2.5
Massachusetts	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.9	5.0	5.4	4.9	5.7	5.1	4.5	6.1	4.0
Michigan	2.2	2.4	2.7	2.0	2.0	2.9	3.5	4.5	7.3	5.3	5.3	11.2	4.8
Minnesota	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.9	3.8	4.1	4.0	4.9	4.2	3.9	5.4	3.5
Mississippi	1.9	2.1	2.4	1.9	2.6	3.9	4.7	5.0	7.0	5.8	5.2	7.3	6.0
Missouri	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.1	2.5	3.1	3.7	4.0	5.0	4.2	3.6	5.1	3.2
Montana	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.2	3.8	4.4	4.4	4.9	7.7	7.0	6.7	7.9	5.2
Nebraska	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.4	2.0	3.0	2.5
Nevada	3.0	3.8	4.5	4.4	4.7	4.6	4.1	4.2	5.7	4.8	4.9	6.8	4.2
New Hampshire	1.1	.9	1.3	1.0	2.1	3.6	4.3	3.5	4.9	4.3	4.1	6.8	4.2
New Jersey	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.9	4.9	5.4	5.2	6.0	5.6	5.5	7.7	5.2
New Mexico	2.5	2.8	2.9	2.7	3.3	3.7	3.9	4.0	5.2	4.1	2.7	3.4	2.4
New York	2.5	2.5	3.0	3.2	3.9	4.7	5.2	4.8	5.7	5.1	5.2	6.4	3.8
North Carolina	1.5	1.7	2.1	1.8	2.5	3.4	3.8	3.8	5.2	4.3	4.1	6.2	4.7
North Dakota	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.6	4.2	4.9	4.8	5.2	6.2	5.5	4.8	4.9	3.8
Ohio	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.3	1.9	2.8	3.7	4.2	5.7	4.7	3.1	6.5	2.5
Oklahoma	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.5	3.3	3.9	4.5	4.5	5.7	4.8	4.1	5.5	3.4
Oregon	3.3	3.2	3.9	3.1	3.5	4.3	4.5	4.9	6.5	5.2	4.6	7.6	6.4
Pennsylvania	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.0	2.9	4.4	5.8	6.3	7.9	6.7	6.8	9.4	5.0
Puerto Rico [1]	7.4	7.2	6.8	6.5	6.8	6.5	6.8	6.6	6.9	----	----	----	----
Rhode Island	3.2	3.1	3.1	2.8	3.4	4.6	5.4	5.0	6.2	5.5	5.5	8.4	6.8
South Carolina	1.6	1.8	2.3	1.6	2.2	2.9	3.2	3.1	4.3	3.4	3.3	4.9	3.8
South Dakota	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.9	2.6	3.0	3.1	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.1	2.6	2.5
Tennessee	2.4	2.5	2.9	2.1	2.8	3.8	4.7	5.3	6.9	5.8	5.1	8.1	6.2
Texas	.8	.9	1.0	1.2	1.9	2.4	2.9	2.8	3.4	3.1	2.8	3.5	1.8
Utah	2.9	3.1	3.2	2.9	4.0	4.0	3.6	3.3	3.8	3.4	3.4	4.2	2.6
Vermont	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.5	3.6	5.0	5.9	4.8	6.2	4.8	4.2	6.4	3.9
Virginia	.7	.7	.9	.7	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.1	3.1	2.7	2.6	3.6	2.0
Washington	4.1	3.3	3.5	3.3	5.0	6.5	6.4	6.0	7.5	6.8	5.9	7.4	5.4
West Virginia	2.9	3.2	3.1	2.9	3.6	4.6	5.9	6.8	8.4	7.5	8.3	11.0	3.8
Wisconsin	1.6	1.9	2.0	1.7	2.0	2.7	3.0	3.0	4.3	3.2	2.7	4.8	2.7
Wyoming	1.4	1.6	2.1	2.2	2.7	3.0	4.5	4.8	4.6	3.5	3.4	4.0	2.6

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[1] Program effective January 1961, with program for sugarcane workers effective July 1963; however, the rates exclude sugarcane workers as comparable covered employment data are not available.

NOTE: Comparability between years for a given State or for the same year among States is affected by changes or differences in statutory or administrative factors.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–7. Total Unemployment in 150 Major

[Thousands]

Major labor area	1969[1]	1968	1967	1966
Alabama:				
Birmingham	10.5	12.7	11.9	12.1
Mobile	5.8	6.1	6.4	5.8
Arizona:				
Phoenix	9.8	10.2	12.7	10.7
Arkansas:				
Little Rock-North Little Rock	3.4	3.6	3.9	3.2
California:				
Anaheim-Santa Ana-Garden Grove	18.8	16.9	17.5	16.6
Fresno	10.4	11.0	12.2	11.4
Los Angeles-Long Beach	136.5	136.6	142.2	139.1
Sacramento	15.6	15.4	16.5	15.3
San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	17.8	19.0	21.8	21.0
San Diego	16.5	16.1	18.1	18.9
San Francisco-Oakland	57.0	56.5	60.7	58.7
San Jose	18.0	17.3	17.7	17.6
Stockton	8.4	8.0	8.0	7.2
Colorado:				
Denver	15.1	15.3	14.5	14.8
Connecticut:				
Bridgeport	7.5	7.2	6.0	5.7
Hartford	11.2	10.1	8.6	7.8
New Britain	2.6	2.2	1.7	1.6
New Haven	6.1	6.0	5.4	5.2
Stamford	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.5
Waterbury	4.8	4.8	3.6	3.7
Delaware:				
Wilmington	6.6	6.8	7.0	6.1
District of Columbia:				
Washington	26.7	26.8	26.0	26.7
Florida:				
Jacksonville	4.5	4.8	4.5	4.4
Miami	17.9	17.5	16.0	15.9
Tampa-St. Petersburg	7.2	7.8	7.8	7.4
Georgia:				
Atlanta	15.9	16.6	16.5	16.2
Augusta	3.5	3.4	3.5	3.0
Columbus	3.1	3.2	3.1	2.7
Macon	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.4
Savannah	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.5
Hawaii:				
Honolulu	6.8	6.9	7.9	7.0
Illinois:				
Chicago	84.0	87.0	89.2	81.9
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	6.1	5.9	4.4	3.8
Peoria	4.8	4.5	4.4	4.2
Rockford	4.0	3.6	3.6	2.7
Indiana:				
Evansville	3.5	3.4	3.4	2.8
Fort Wayne	2.7	3.1	2.9	2.2
Gary-Hammond-East Chicago	6.9	7.9	6.9	6.3
Indianapolis	11.1	11.9	10.4	9.7
South Bend	3.9	3.5	3.4	2.9
Terre Haute	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.2
Iowa:				
Cedar Rapids	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.1
Des Moines	3.5	2.9	3.0	2.4
Kansas:				
Wichita	7.0	5.5	4.9	4.5
Kentucky:				
Louisville	10.4	9.4	10.2	9.9
Louisiana:				
Baton Rouge	7.1	5.7	5.5	4.1
New Orleans	19.9	18.1	17.3	13.5
Shreveport	4.2	3.8	3.4	3.6
Maine:				
Portland	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.5
Maryland:				
Baltimore	25.0	25.7	24.3	23.7
Massachusetts:				
Boston	46.0	45.2	45.3	47.9
Brockton	2.6	2.4	2.7	2.6
Fall River	3.1	2.9	3.2	3.3
Lawrence-Haverhill	4.9	4.5	4.8	4.8
Lowell	3.2	3.2	3.7	3.6
New Bedford	3.9	3.8	4.1	3.9
Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke	10.2	10.2	10.0	9.3
Worcester	5.3	5.6	5.7	5.6
Michigan:				
Battle Creek	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.1
Detroit	64.2	66.4	68.6	52.4
Flint	6.9	6.4	8.3	6.0
Grand Rapids	10.2	8.4	8.4	6.5
Kalamazoo	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.3
Lansing	4.4	4.6	4.0	3.4
Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	3.6	4.1	3.1	2.2
Saginaw	3.0	2.9	3.4	2.2

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–7. Total Unemployment in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69—Continued

Major labor area	1969 [1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Minnesota:										
Duluth-Superior	2.9	3.1	3.1	2.7	3.4	4.2	4.9	5.7	5.9	4.7
Minneapolis-St. Paul	16.2	16.7	16.5	16.8	20.3	23.9	24.7	23.7	28.0	21.2
Mississippi:										
Jackson	3.4	3.6	3.6	3.2	3.3	3.7	4.3	4.3	4.9	4.4
Missouri:										
Kansas City	24.3	22.5	23.0	22.4	24.1	24.5	25.6	26.9	32.0	29.8
St. Louis	35.9	35.1	34.3	32.4	33.2	37.4	42.9	48.1	56.2	49.0
Nebraska:										
Omaha	6.1	6.3	6.5	6.7	6.5	7.0	7.4	7.3	7.6	6.4
New Hampshire:										
Manchester	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.8	2.4	2.7	2.4	3.2	2.9
New Jersey:										
Atlantic City	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.8	5.5	5.6	5.7	6.2	5.6
Jersey City	15.9	15.7	14.5	12.9	15.2	17.9	19.4	18.0	23.3	21.6
Newark	35.0	35.8	36.3	35.3	39.3	45.8	48.3	46.5	54.0	49.7
New Brunswick-Perth Amboy	13.3	13.0	12.0	10.6	12.3	13.6	14.6	14.3	14.8	12.8
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	23.8	23.1	22.5	22.8	26.3	30.3	28.6	26.4	33.4	30.6
Trenton	4.9	5.3	5.5	5.3	5.6	5.8	6.6	6.8	9.1	8.0
New Mexico:										
Albuquerque	5.3	5.0	5.1	5.1	5.4	5.2	4.8	4.9	5.8	4.0
New York:										
Albany-Schenectady-Troy	9.1	9.2	9.9	9.6	10.0	11.5	12.4	12.6	15.0	15.1
Binghamton	4.4	3.9	4.1	4.2	4.6	5.2	6.0	5.7	5.9	5.4
Buffalo	20.9	21.5	22.5	21.1	23.2	27.8	34.5	38.4	46.3	37.8
New York	179.4	180.2	202.4	221.6	240.3	256.4	267.7	251.5	280.5	277.6
Rochester	9.5	8.7	8.3	8.3	10.2	10.9	13.4	12.5	14.6	13.9
Syracuse	8.4	8.5	9.7	7.1	8.9	10.6	11.4	11.3	14.2	12.6
Utica-Rome	5.3	5.7	6.0	5.7	7.0	8.5	8.6	8.2	9.5	9.8
North Carolina:										
Asheville	1.6	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.2	2.7	2.8	3.0	4.1	3.2
Charlotte	4.8	6.2	5.6	5.5	5.3	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.1	4.4
Durham	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.8	3.2	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Greensboro-Winston-Salem-High Point	6.7	6.6	7.1	7.2	7.5	9.1	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Ohio:										
Akron	6.9	6.6	7.1	6.4	7.7	9.8	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Canton	4.0	4.5	4.6	4.1	4.9	5.9	8.2	9.3	11.9	8.1
Cincinnati	15.4	16.6	16.7	15.9	20.3	24.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Cleveland	21.9	23.4	25.7	23.1	26.9	31.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Columbus	9.3	8.9	9.4	9.3	10.1	11.5	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Dayton	8.5	8.5	8.2	8.1	9.1	9.5	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Hamilton-Middletown	2.7	2.9	3.1	2.7	3.4	4.4	5.4	5.8	6.8	5.3
Lorain-Elyria	2.8	3.0	3.5	2.8	3.2	3.9	4.5	4.8	6.7	5.4
Steubenville-Weirton, W. Va.	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.5	2.6	4.1	4.2	4.5	3.8
Toledo	8.1	8.2	9.0	8.0	9.0	10.4	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Youngstown-Warren	6.2	8.0	8.9	7.2	7.9	8.0	12.1	15.9	19.6	15.1
Oklahoma:										
Oklahoma City	8.3	8.5	8.6	8.3	9.0	9.3	8.8	8.6	9.4	7.5
Tulsa	7.1	7.0	6.5	6.4	7.3	7.7	9.2	8.5	10.2	8.2
Oregon:										
Portland	16.3	15.5	16.7	13.7	15.6	17.2	17.5	18.6	22.5	16.7
Pennsylvania:										
Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	4.4	4.5	5.5	5.1	6.4	9.3	12.2	12.2	14.7	11.9
Altoona	1.8	2.3	4.1	3.6	3.5	4.5	5.3	5.6	6.2	5.2
Erie	3.3	3.3	3.8	3.1	4.2	5.9	7.5	7.7	10.2	9.1
Harrisburg	3.9	4.5	4.2	4.3	5.3	6.5	8.4	9.7	10.8	8.5
Johnstown	4.3	5.0	5.0	4.2	5.1	6.3	9.3	13.7	17.1	12.3
Lancaster	2.8	2.9	2.5	2.0	2.5	3.7	4.3	4.0	5.4	4.7
Philadelphia	62.3	62.8	65.4	64.9	82.1	110.5	122.4	119.9	129.1	115.1
Pittsburgh	24.5	27.0	29.7	27.6	33.3	49.9	71.6	85.9	100.2	84.1
Reading	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.9	4.9	5.8	5.4	7.1	5.4
Scranton	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.7	6.5	8.3	10.6	10.9	12.4	11.7
Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton	5.3	5.8	6.2	6.6	8.4	10.2	12.9	13.4	16.7	16.2
York	3.1	3.0	3.2	3.0	3.6	5.5	7.5	7.4	8.0	6.8
Puerto Rico:										
Mayaguez	3.8	4.1	3.7	3.7	4.2	3.8	4.2	3.6	3.2	2.8
Ponce	7.6	7.6	5.7	6.8	6.6	6.1	6.3	5.4	4.5	4.5
San Juan	15.5	16.4	15.9	15.1	14.9	14.2	14.2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Rhode Island:										
Providence-Pawtucket	15.0	15.1	15.2	14.7	18.2	21.3	23.2	21.5	26.0	24.7
South Carolina:										
Charleston	4.3	4.1	4.4	4.1	4.5	5.2	5.5	4.8	(2)	(2)
Greenville	3.8	4.1	4.6	3.6	4.8	5.9	6.2	4.2	(2)	(2)
Tennessee:										
Chattanooga	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.1	4.2	7.1	9.0	9.5	9.3	7.5
Knoxville	4.7	5.1	5.0	4.4	4.7	6.6	7.7	8.0	11.1	8.3
Memphis	9.5	9.6	9.5	8.7	10.7	11.2	12.2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Nashville	6.7	6.8	6.9	5.9	6.6	8.2	7.7	(2)	(2)	(2)
Texas:										
Austin	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.7	3.0	3.3	3.6	3.1	3.9	3.8
Beaumont-Port Arthur	4.8	5.5	5.5	4.8	6.3	8.3	9.9	9.3	9.4	9.8
Corpus Christi	3.7	3.3	3.7	3.4	4.6	4.9	5.2	5.7	6.1	5.9
Dallas	11.4	10.7	12.8	14.7	19.1	21.0	21.3	19.3	24.4	19.1
El Paso	4.5	4.7	4.5	4.8	6.0	6.1	6.3	5.6	5.7	4.9
Fort Worth	6.2	5.9	6.5	7.5	9.6	10.6	11.9	12.0	13.2	10.4
Houston	18.2	15.6	15.7	17.2	22.2	24.3	29.0	26.1	29.5	(2)
San Antonio	11.2	10.2	10.3	11.3	14.6	15.5	16.7	15.4	14.0	10.5
Utah:										
Salt Lake City	10.0	10.1	9.8	8.1	9.8	8.8	7.6	6.1	6.7	5.6
Virginia:										
Newport News-Hampton	3.2	2.8	2.8	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.5	3.2
Norfolk-Portsmouth	6.8	6.4	6.8	5.8	6.4	6.7	6.9	7.1	8.5	7.6
Richmond	4.6	4.5	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.9	4.8	4.6	6.1	(2)
Roanoke	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.8	4.0	4.6

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–7. Total Unemployment in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69—Continued

Major labor area	1969 [1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Washington:										
Seattle	26.4	18.9	18.8	16.9	24.5	31.4	29.7	24.3	30.5	28.0
Spokane	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.5	4.9	5.5	6.5	6.6	7.4	6.8
Tacoma	6.7	5.5	5.4	5.2	6.2	6.4	6.9	6.1	7.5	6.7
West Virginia:										
Charleston	4.1	4.5	4.4	4.7	5.8	6.8	7.2	7.1	8.1	7.0
Huntington-Ashland	5.0	5.8	5.1	4.7	6.2	7.3	8.1	9.6	10.7	10.8
Wheeling	3.3	4.2	3.8	3.6	4.5	4.9	6.8	8.2	10.6	10.0
Wisconsin:										
Kenosha	1.7	1.7	2.8	2.5	1.6	2.0	1.5	1.7	3.6	1.6
Madison	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.6	3.0	2.7
Milwaukee	17.1	16.9	17.8	14.2	15.9	18.4	19.7	20.1	29.4	20.3
Racine	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.6	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.5	3.3	2.6

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.

[2] Comparable data not available.

NOTE: Data are based on payroll, unemployment insurance, and other work force records and are not affected by the definitional changes for measuring unemployment on a national basis which were adopted beginning 1967.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–8. Total Unemployment Rates in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69

[Total unemployment as percent of total work force]

Major labor area	1969 [1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Alabama:										
Birmingham	3.5	4.3	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.7	6.2	7.3	8.5	7.2
Mobile	4.6	4.8	5.1	4.4	4.5	5.0	5.2	6.3	6.8	5.7
Arizona:										
Phoenix	2.6	2.9	3.9	3.4	4.7	4.4	4.6	5.0	5.8	4.8
Arkansas:										
Little Rock-North Little Rock	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.4	3.0	3.3	3.8	4.6	(2)	(2)
California:										
Anaheim-Santa Ana-Garden Grove	4.0	3.8	4.2	4.3	5.3	5.2	4.9	4.8	6.6	5.8
Fresno	5.7	6.3	6.9	6.5	7.2	7.3	7.7	8.0	8.6	7.0
Los Angeles-Long Beach	4.1	4.2	4.5	4.5	5.7	5.8	5.7	5.5	6.7	5.5
Sacramento	5.0	5.0	5.5	5.2	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.8	6.2	5.5
San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	4.8	5.3	6.3	6.2	6.7	6.0	6.0	5.9	7.5	6.6
San Diego	3.7	3.9	4.7	5.1	7.2	7.5	7.7	7.9	7.5	6.4
San Francisco-Oakland	3.9	4.0	4.4	4.4	5.0	5.3	5.3	5.2	5.9	5.1
San Jose	4.2	4.2	4.5	4.8	6.0	6.1	5.7	5.7	6.4	5.9
Stockton	6.7	6.6	6.8	6.4	7.4	7.9	8.6	8.6	9.2	8.3
Colorado:										
Denver	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.6	3.7	4.2	3.7	3.7	3.2
Connecticut:										
Bridgeport	4.4	4.2	3.6	3.5	4.7	5.4	5.5	5.8	7.6	6.8
Hartford	3.2	2.9	2.5	2.4	3.0	3.8	3.7	3.8	5.1	4.4
New Britain	5.0	4.2	3.3	3.2	5.0	5.5	5.7	5.8	9.6	7.6
New Haven	3.4	3.4	3.2	3.2	3.4	4.4	4.4	4.5	5.5	4.7
Stamford	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.7	4.4	4.3	3.8	3.8	2.9
Waterbury	5.2	5.3	4.1	4.3	5.2	6.7	6.7	6.8	9.0	7.3
Delaware:										
Wilmington	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.0	3.0	3.8	3.9	4.8	5.7	4.4
District of Columbia:										
Washington	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.6
Florida:										
Jacksonville	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.6	2.9	3.8	3.7	4.4	3.2
Miami	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.9	5.2	8.2	8.9	9.4	6.5
Tampa-St. Petersburg	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.8	3.2	4.0	4.6	6.4	5.4
Georgia:										
Atlanta	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.5	4.9	4.2
Augusta	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.2	3.4	4.3	4.7	4.8	5.4	4.2
Columbus	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.5	4.1	4.6	5.3	5.7	5.6	5.1
Macon	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.8	3.3	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.5	3.7
Savannah	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.5	4.2	5.0	5.5	5.7	7.4	6.0
Hawaii:										
Honolulu	2.6	2.8	3.4	3.1	3.3	3.8	4.7	4.5	3.9	2.8
Illinois:										
Chicago	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.6	3.0	3.7	4.2	4.2	5.1	3.7
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	3.8	3.7	2.8	2.5	2.9	2.7	3.3	3.8	5.0	4.5
Peoria	3.1	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.2	3.4	4.4	4.8	5.8	4.6
Rockford	3.1	2.9	2.9	2.3	2.9	3.4	4.2	4.5	6.2	(2)
Indiana:										
Evansville	3.5	3.4	3.4	2.9	3.4	3.6	4.3	(2)	(2)	(2)
Fort Wayne	2.1	2.5	2.4	1.9	2.2	2.9	3.8	(2)	(2)	(2)
Gary-Hammond-East Chicago	2.9	3.3	2.9	2.7	3.2	3.4	5.2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Indianapolis	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.2	2.5	3.5	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
South Bend	3.6	3.2	3.1	2.7	4.2	7.1	4.6	(2)	(2)	(2)
Terre Haute	3.3	3.7	3.7	3.6	4.8	5.8	6.3	(2)	(2)	(2)
Iowa:										
Cedar Rapids	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.2	3.6	2.5
Des Moines	2.4	2.0	2.2	1.8	2.0	2.4	2.4	2.9	3.5	2.7
Kansas:										
Wichita	4.0	3.2	2.9	2.7	4.1	4.0	4.5	4.1	5.3	5.0
Kentucky:										
Louisville	2.8	2.6	3.0	3.0	3.5	4.1	4.8	5.4	7.5	6.7

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–8. Total Unemployment Rates in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69—Continued

Major labor area	1969[1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Louisiana:										
Baton Rouge	5.6	4.5	4.6	3.7	4.1	5.1	5.8	6.8	6.6	5.4
New Orleans	4.6	4.2	4.1	3.2	4.0	4.8	5.6	6.6	7.1	5.9
Shreveport	3.4	3.2	3.0	3.2	4.1	4.7	5.1	5.5	5.9	5.2
Maine:										
Portland	2.9	2.6	3.3	3.7	4.0	4.6	4.8	4.9	6.4	6.6
Maryland:										
Baltimore	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.9	3.8	4.6	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Massachusetts:										
Boston	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.6	4.0	4.7	4.4	4.4	4.8	4.1
Brockton	4.4	4.2	4.6	4.5	5.5	6.8	7.8	7.4	7.4	7.2
Fall River	5.7	5.4	6.0	6.3	8.0	10.4	10.4	9.7	9.5	8.5
Lawrence-Haverhill	5.3	4.8	5.2	5.3	6.7	7.1	7.0	6.1	7.4	6.6
Lowell	5.3	5.4	6.3	6.2	8.1	8.7	8.6	8.1	9.1	8.0
New Bedford	6.0	6.0	6.5	6.1	6.8	7.7	7.7	7.7	9.2	8.1
Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.3	5.4	6.4	7.0	6.7	6.7	5.9
Worcester	3.6	3.8	3.9	3.9	4.5	5.5	6.4	5.5	6.6	5.3
Michigan:										
Battle Creek	4.0	4.1	4.1	3.1	3.8	4.6	5.4	6.3	7.9	5.9
Detroit	3.7	3.9	4.2	3.3	3.5	4.3	5.2	7.0	10.9	6.8
Flint	3.7	3.5	4.8	3.4	2.7	3.3	3.3	4.2	8.9	5.0
Grand Rapids	4.6	3.8	4.0	3.2	2.8	3.9	4.3	4.6	6.2	4.9
Kalamazoo	3.4	3.6	3.4	3.0	3.1	3.5	4.5	4.5	5.7	4.7
Lansing	2.9	3.1	2.8	2.5	2.2	3.4	4.2	4.5	7.9	4.2
Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	5.9	6.7	5.1	3.8	4.5	6.0	5.6	6.2	9.2	7.8
Saginaw	3.5	3.5	4.3	2.8	2.4	2.7	3.9	5.1	8.8	5.2
Minnesota:										
Duluth-Superior	4.5	4.9	4.9	4.3	5.6	7.0	8.2	9.3	9.4	7.3
Minneapolis-St. Paul	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.8	3.4	3.6	3.5	4.2	3.2
Mississippi:										
Jackson	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.2	3.3	3.9	4.6	4.7	5.4	4.8
Missouri:										
Kansas City	4.0	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.8	5.1	5.4	6.9	6.4
St. Louis	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.5	4.1	4.7	5.4	6.4	5.5
Nebraska:										
Omaha	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.0	3.4	3.7	3.6	3.8	3.2
New Hampshire:										
Manchester	2.7	2.2	2.2	2.0	3.4	4.7	5.3	4.8	6.1	5.4
New Jersey:										
Atlantic City	5.8	5.5	5.7	5.7	6.5	7.5	7.9	8.0	8.9	8.1
Jersey City	5.4	5.3	5.0	4.4	5.2	6.2	6.7	6.1	7.8	7.2
Newark	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.6	5.5	5.9	5.7	6.7	6.2
New Brunswick-Perth Amboy	4.6	4.6	4.4	4.0	4.9	5.6	6.2	6.2	6.6	5.8
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.3	5.3	6.1	5.8	5.5	7.2	6.6
Trenton	3.3	3.6	3.9	3.8	4.1	4.3	5.0	5.4	7.1	6.1
New Mexico:										
Albuquerque	4.4	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.9	5.8	4.1
New York:										
Albany-Schenectady-Troy	3.0	3.0	3.3	3.2	3.5	4.1	4.4	4.5	5.5	5.4
Binghamton	3.6	3.2	3.3	3.4	4.4	3.9	5.1	4.8	4.9	4.5
Buffalo	3.7	3.8	4.1	3.9	4.4	5.4	6.7	7.4	8.8	7.0
New York	3.2	3.3	3.7	4.2	4.5	4.9	5.1	4.8	5.4	5.3
Rochester	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.9	3.2	4.0	3.8	4.6	4.4
Syracuse	3.2	3.3	3.8	2.9	3.7	4.6	4.9	4.9	6.1	5.5
Utica-Rome	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.3	5.5	6.6	6.6	6.2	7.1	7.2
North Carolina:										
Asheville	2.4	3.3	3.2	3.0	3.7	4.6	5.1	5.5	7.2	5.9
Charlotte	2.4	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.7	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.5
Durham	3.6	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.8	4.7	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Greensboro-Winston-Salem-High Point	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.8	3.6	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Ohio:										
Akron	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.6	3.2	4.2	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Canton	2.6	3.0	3.1	2.9	3.5	4.4	6.3	7.0	8.9	5.9
Cincinnati	2.7	3.0	3.1	3.0	4.0	4.8	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Cleveland	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.6	3.1	3.6	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Columbus	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.8	3.3	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Dayton	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.8	3.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Hamilton-Middletown	3.5	3.7	3.9	3.5	4.5	6.0	7.5	8.0	9.1	6.9
Lorain-Elyria	3.1	3.3	4.1	3.4	3.9	5.0	6.0	6.5	8.9	7.1
Steubenville-Weirton, W. Va.	3.1	3.6	4.0	3.4	3.6	3.9	6.4	6.6	7.0	6.1
Toledo	2.9	3.1	3.5	3.2	3.7	4.4	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Youngstown-Warren	2.8	3.7	3.8	3.5	3.9	4.2	6.5	8.3	9.9	7.4
Oklahoma:										
Oklahoma City	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.6	3.8	3.7	3.7	4.2	3.5
Tulsa	3.4	3.4	3.2	3.3	3.9	4.3	5.3	5.0	5.9	4.7
Oregon:										
Portland	3.6	3.6	4.0	3.3	4.0	4.6	4.8	5.2	6.5	4.8
Pennsylvania:										
Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	1.8	1.9	2.3	2.2	2.8	4.2	5.6	5.6	6.7	5.4
Altoona	3.3	4.3	7.6	6.7	6.7	8.7	10.2	10.7	11.9	9.8
Erie	3.0	3.0	3.5	2.9	4.1	6.0	7.7	7.9	10.5	9.3
Harrisburg	2.0	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.9	3.6	4.8	5.5	6.1	4.8
Johnstown	4.6	5.4	5.5	4.5	5.7	7.2	10.6	15.1	18.2	12.9
Lancaster	2.0	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.9	2.9	3.5	3.3	4.4	3.9
Philadelphia	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.3	4.3	5.9	6.5	6.4	6.9	6.2
Pittsburgh	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.0	3.6	5.5	8.0	9.4	10.7	8.8
Reading	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6	2.2	3.8	4.6	4.3	5.7	4.4
Scranton	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.9	6.9	8.8	11.1	11.2	12.6	11.8
Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton	3.8	4.2	4.5	4.9	6.3	7.7	9.7	10.0	12.5	12.1
York	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.7	4.2	5.9	5.8	6.3	5.4

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–8. Total Unemployment Rates in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69—Continued

Major labor area	1969[1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Puerto Rico:										
Mayaguez	13.0	12.8	12.2	12.1	13.7	13.2	14.5	13.2	12.4	11.5
Ponce	15.4	15.5	12.8	15.1	15.0	14.0	14.9	13.3	11.6	11.7
San Juan	4.7	5.3	5.4	5.3	5.4	5.4	6.1	(2)	(2)	(2)
Rhode Island										
Providence-Pawtucket	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.8	4.8	5.8	6.3	5.9	7.3	7.0
South Carolina:										
Charleston	4.0	3.9	4.3	4.1	4.8	5.7	6.1	6.1	(2)	(2)
Greenville	2.7	2.9	3.5	2.8	3.9	5.0	5.3	4.3	(2)	(2)
Tennessee:										
Chattanooga	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.0	3.2	5.7	7.4	7.9	7.9	7.6
Knoxville	2.7	3.0	3.0	2.8	3.0	4.3	5.2	5.5	7.7	5.8
Memphis	2.9	3.0	3.1	2.9	3.7	4.0	4.4	(2)	(2)	(2)
Nashville	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.4	2.9	3.7	3.7	(2)	(2)	(2)
Texas:										
Austin	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.6	3.1	3.4	3.9	3.5	4.6	4.6
Beaumont-Port Arthur	3.9	4.5	4.5	4.0	5.3	6.9	8.2	7.5	7.7	8.2
Corpus Christi	3.8	3.5	3.9	3.7	5.1	5.6	6.2	6.8	8.2	7.7
Dallas	1.6	1.6	2.0	2.4	3.3	3.8	4.0	3.8	4.4	3.9
El Paso	3.7	4.0	3.9	4.4	5.8	6.0	6.2	5.5	5.6	4.8
Fort Worth	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.9	3.9	4.3	5.1	5.2	5.7	4.7
Houston	2.2	1.9	2.1	2.4	3.2	3.7	4.6	4.2	4.9	(2)
San Antonio	3.7	3.5	3.7	4.3	5.7	6.3	6.9	6.5	6.0	4.6
Utah:										
Salt Lake City	4.7	4.9	4.9	4.0	5.0	4.5	4.0	3.3	3.8	3.3
Virginia:										
Newport News-Hampton	3.0	2.7	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.3	4.2	4.1
Norfolk-Portsmouth	3.0	2.9	3.2	2.8	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.7	4.5	4.1
Richmond	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.2	3.0	(2)
Roanoke	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.8	2.8	3.8	5.6	6.5
Washington:										
Seattle	4.0	2.9	3.1	3.0	4.8	6.4	6.0	4.8	6.5	6.1
Spokane	4.6	4.7	4.9	4.5	5.1	5.8	6.5	6.9	7.6	6.9
Tacoma	5.0	4.2	4.3	4.4	5.6	6.0	6.5	5.8	7.3	6.6
West Virginia:										
Charleston	4.3	4.6	4.5	4.9	6.2	7.2	7.7	7.6	8.5	7.5
Huntington-Ashland	5.2	5.9	5.2	4.8	6.5	7.9	9.0	10.7	11.8	11.9
Wheeling	4.7	6.1	5.6	5.4	6.6	7.3	10.1	12.0	15.0	14.0
Wisconsin:										
Kenosha	4.6	4.5	7.2	6.3	3.7	4.7	3.5	4.1	9.0	3.8
Madison	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.6	3.0	2.7
Milwaukee	2.7	2.7	2.9	2.4	2.7	3.3	3.6	3.7	5.3	(2)
Racine	2.9	4.1	4.5	4.1	3.6	3.9	4.3	4.6	6.3	5.0

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.

[2] Comparable data not available.

NOTE: Data are based on payroll, unemployment insurance, and other work force records and are not affected by the definitional changes for measuring unemployment on a national basis which were adopted beginning 1967.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–9. Insured Unemployment Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69

[Thousands]

Major labor area	1969	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Alabama:										
Birmingham	3.0	4.4	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.7	5.1	6.6	7.6	7.3
Mobile	1.6	1.8	2.1	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.6	3.4	2.7
Arizona:										
Phoenix	2.8	3.5	5.1	3.9	6.1	5.4	5.2	5.5	6.3	4.3
Arkansas:										
Little Rock-North Little Rock	.9	.8	.7	.6	.8	.9	1.2	1.4	2.4	1.5
California:										
Anaheim-Santa Ana-Garden Grove	9.6	7.8	9.1	8.3	10.8	9.9	8.5	6.8	9.4	6.9
Fresno	5.0	5.0	5.8	5.1	5.5	5.9	6.0	6.3	6.6	5.0
Los Angeles-Long Beach	69.7	69.1	74.5	70.1	94.2	101.1	102.4	87.8	114.9	91.7
Sacramento	8.6	7.9	8.7	8.1	8.7	6.4	6.2	7.0	6.3	5.3
San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	8.7	9.3	11.3	10.7	11.5	9.1	8.6	7.9	9.6	9.0
San Diego	8.5	8.3	10.1	10.1	13.2	13.5	13.8	15.2	14.2	12.8
San Francisco-Oakland	28.5	27.9	32.5	30.6	35.1	35.9	36.0	33.7	37.9	31.2
San Jose	9.0	8.5	9.1	9.0	11.1	11.0	9.6	8.6	9.8	8.1
Stockton	4.4	4.1	4.3	3.7	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.8	4.7	4.3
Colorado:										
Denver	1.9	1.9	2.9	2.8	4.1	4.6	6.2	5.4	5.2	4.0
Connecticut:										
Bridgeport	3.9	3.7	2.8	2.2	3.4	4.3	4.3	4.5	5.8	5.7
Hartford	4.8	3.9	3.0	2.3	3.6	5.0	5.1	4.7	7.2	6.3
New Britain	1.6	1.2	.7	.6	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.5	2.4	2.0
New Haven	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.1	2.4	3.3	3.3	3.3	4.2	3.7
Stamford	1.0	.9	.8	.7	1.1	1.5	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.5
Waterbury	2.7	2.8	1.7	1.7	2.0	2.7	3.0	2.5	3.7	3.4
Delaware:										
Wilmington	2.6	2.6	2.8	2.5	2.4	3.3	3.1	4.3	4.4	3.3
District of Columbia:										
Washington	5.9	6.0	6.0	5.5	6.1	7.6	7.2	6.5	8.0	6.3

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–9. Insured Unemployment Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69—Continued

Major labor area	1969	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Florida:										
Jacksonville	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.3	2.0	2.2	3.0	2.0
Miami	5.3	5.4	5.0	5.1	5.8	6.4	8.4	10.3	11.0	8.7
Tampa-St. Petersburg	2.6	3.1	3.2	2.8	3.4	4.0	5.1	5.8	7.4	5.7
Georgia:										
Atlanta	2.5	3.2	3.9	3.0	3.5	4.2	4.9	5.4	9.3	7.3
Augusta	.7	.6	.7	.5	.6	.8	.9	.9	2.9	1.1
Columbus	.6	.7	.6	.5	.6	.7	1.1	1.1	1.6	1.4
Macon	.5	.5	.4	.4	.4	.6	.8	.9	1.3	1.0
Savannah	.4	.5	.6	.6	.7	1.0	1.2	1.2	2.2	1.7
Hawaii:										
Honolulu	2.7	3.0	4.0	3.2	3.4	3.9	5.0	5.0	4.4	2.6
Illinois:										
Chicago	21.6	24.8	26.5	21.6	31.0	42.3	52.3	49.5	68.2	53.8
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	2.4	2.2	1.2	.8	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.7	2.8	2.5
Peoria	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.5	1.7	2.3	2.8	3.6	3.1
Rockford	1.2	.9	1.0	.5	.9	1.1	1.6	1.7	2.5	2.0
Indiana:										
Evansville	1.1	1.1	1.2	.9	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.5	2.4	2.2
Fort Wayne	.4	.7	.7	.5	.7	.9	1.3	1.3	2.0	1.6
Gary-Hammond-East Chicago	1.5	2.3	2.0	1.6	2.4	2.4	4.2	6.2	6.7	5.3
Indianapolis	2.4	2.9	2.6	2.1	2.7	3.4	4.0	4.5	6.8	5.5
South Bend	1.2	1.0	1.0	.7	2.7	3.5	2.5	2.2	4.7	2.9
Terre Haute	.7	.9	.9	.8	1.0	.8	.9	1.1	1.4	1.3
Iowa:										
Cedar Rapids	.3	.3	.2	.2	.3	.3	.4	.5	1.0	.7
DesMoines	.9	.7	.7	.5	.7	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.9	1.5
Kansas:										
Wichita	2.3	1.5	1.3	1.0	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.1	3.1	3.4
Kentucky:										
Lousiville	2.6	2.2	3.1	2.7	3.5	4.5	5.2	5.9	8.8	8.4
Louisiana:										
Baton Rouge	1.5	1.0	1.1	.7	.8	1.2	1.5	1.7	3.0	1.4
New Orleans	5.9	4.6	5.0	3.3	4.4	5.0	6.2	7.5	9.6	7.6
Shreveport	1.1	1.0	.8	.9	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.3	2.0
Maine:										
Portland	.6	.6	.6	.8	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.9	1.9
Maryland:										
Baltimore	8.9	9.7	8.5	8.1	11.6	14.7	16.7	20.0	24.0	21.9
Massachusetts:										
Boston	20.1	19.5	20.6	21.2	25.2	31.0	31.4	29.5	33.8	28.9
Brockton	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.7	2.5	3.0	2.7	2.6	3.0
Fall River	2.8	2.4	2.6	2.6	3.4	5.0	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.0
Lawrence-Haverhill	3.5	3.1	3.3	3.1	3.9	4.7	5.2	4.0	5.2	4.0
Lowell	1.9	1.8	2.3	2.1	2.8	3.3	3.4	3.1	3.6	3.7
New Bedford	3.0	2.7	3.1	2.7	2.9	3.7	4.0	3.3	(1)	(1)
Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke	4.8	5.0	4.8	4.2	5.5	6.6	7.5	7.8	8.5	8.2
Worcester	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.7	3.2	4.2	5.5	4.5	5.8	4.5
Michigan:										
Battle Creek	1.2	1.2	1.1	.7	.8	1.0	1.3	1.4	2.0	1.7
Detroit	23.0	24.6	29.5	19.8	17.1	24.1	28.7	39.5	77.7	48.4
Flint	2.7	3.0	4.3	2.7	1.8	2.2	2.4	3.0	7.7	2.7
Grand Rapids	3.9	3.1	3.1	2.1	1.8	2.4	2.6	2.9	4.2	3.3
Kalamazoo	.9	1.0	1.0	.6	.8	.9	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.4
Lansing	1.3	1.8	1.6	1.1	.8	1.5	1.9	2.0	4.6	1.8
Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	1.2	1.5	1.1	.6	.7	1.3	1.1	1.2	2.3	2.1
Saginaw	.8	1.0	1.5	.5	.5	.6	1.0	1.3	2.9	1.5
Minnesota:										
Duluth-Superior	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.0	2.4	2.0
Minneapolis-St. Paul	3.2	3.7	4.2	4.7	7.9	10.7	11.4	10.9	14.9	11.1
Mississippi:										
Jackson	.5	.5	.6	.4	.6	.8	1.2	1.2	1.6	1.1
Missouri:										
Kansas City	5.7	5.0	5.9	5.7	6.4	7.0	8.8	8.9	12.4	11.8
St. Louis	13.5	13.6	14.0	12.3	12.1	14.2	17.1	20.5	27.1	20.3
Nebraska:										
Omaha	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.7	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.0
New Hampshire:										
Manchester	.6	.5	.5	.4	1.0	1.5	1.9	1.5	2.0	1.9
New Jersey:										
Atlantic City	2.6	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.8	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.8	4.0
Jersey City	9.4	9.1	8.0	6.8	7.8	9.5	10.7	9.8	11.6	(1)
Newark	16.2	16.4	17.3	15.8	17.9	21.6	23.8	22.2	25.9	26.5
New Brunswick-Perth Amboy	5.9	5.7	5.6	4.7	5.5	5.6	7.1	7.3	8.2	6.2
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	12.4	12.2	12.0	11.6	13.5	16.3	18.5	14.7	18.0	19.2
Trenton	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.6	3.0	3.2	4.3	4.8
New Mexico:										
Albuquerque	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.9	2.1
New York:										
Albany-Schenectady-Troy	3.5	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.2	5.7	6.5	6.4	8.2	8.3
Binghamton	1.8	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.7	2.6	2.1	2.5	2.4
Buffalo	8.8	9.3	10.4	9.3	11.1	14.4	18.2	19.5	24.9	19.9
New York	97.3	94.8	114.8	134.8	151.7	167.8	182.3	163.9	188.5	168.5
Rochester	4.0	3.8	4.0	3.7	5.1	3.6	4.9	4.9	6.6	5.7
Syracuse	3.2	3.3	4.3	2.7	3.7	5.0	5.5	5.0	7.2	7.0
Utica-Rome	2.8	2.9	3.3	2.8	3.0	4.5	3.4	4.3	5.5	5.7
North Carolina:										
Asheville	.6	.9	.9	.6	.8	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.6	1.2
Charlotte	.9	.9	1.0	.8	1.2	1.4	1.7	1.8	2.3	2.0
Durham	.6	.7	.7	.6	.9	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.0
Greensboro-Winston Salem-High Point	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.8	2.3	3.3	3.9	3.7	5.1	4.0

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–9. Insured Unemployment Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69—Continued

Major labor area	1969	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Ohio:										
Akron	2.0	1.7	2.1	1.7	2.1	3.3	4.2	4.1	7.6	5.3
Canton	1.1	1.5	1.6	1.2	1.6	2.3	3.9	4.8	6.0	4.8
Cincinnati	4.5	4.6	5.4	4.9	7.0	7.4	8.4	9.0	12.0	10.0
Cleveland	4.7	5.5	8.1	6.2	8.9	12.6	17.1	20.4	30.2	22.4
Columbus	2.1	1.7	2.4	2.3	2.8	3.9	4.2	4.0	5.9	5.5
Dayton	1.5	1.8	1.8	1.6	2.3	2.9	4.2	4.6	6.7	5.5
Hamilton-Middletown	1.0	1.1	1.3	.9	1.3	1.9	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.0
Lorain-Elyria	.8	.9	1.3	.8	.9	1.5	2.0	2.4	3.1	3.2
Steubenville-Weirton, W. Va.	.7	1.0	1.1	.8	.8	.9	1.9	2.2	2.4	2.2
Toledo	2.0	2.1	3.1	2.5	2.5	3.0	4.1	5.1	8.5	5.2
Youngstown-Warren	1.6	3.0	3.3	2.6	3.0	3.2	5.9	9.1	9.9	9.5
Oklahoma:										
Oklahoma City	1.5	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.6	3.0	3.0	2.9	4.1	3.0
Tulsa	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	2.2	2.5	3.5	3.2	4.7	3.5
Oregon:										
Portland	6.2	5.8	6.9	4.9	6.0	7.2	7.6	8.1	11.2	8.0
Pennsylvania:										
Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	2.8	2.7	3.4	2.5	3.1	5.0	7.4	7.1	8.9	7.7
Altoona	.9	1.0	1.2	.9	.9	1.5	1.8	1.9	2.1	1.8
Erie	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.2	1.8	2.7	3.6	3.7	5.1	4.5
Harrisburg	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.9	2.4	3.4	4.0	4.8	3.8
Johnstown	2.4	2.9	2.9	2.1	2.7	3.4	5.0	7.1	9.5	7.3
Lancaster	1.0	1.2	.9	.6	.9	1.6	2.0	1.7	2.6	2.1
Philadelphia	25.3	25.3	26.2	23.4	32.1	48.6	58.0	56.2	65.9	56.8
Pittsburgh	11.3	13.5	14.6	11.9	15.7	23.2	35.4	45.7	54.7	47.0
Reading	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.8	3.1	3.9	3.0	4.3	3.8
Scranton	3.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	3.5	4.5	6.0	5.7	6.8	6.7
Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton	4.8	4.7	5.0	4.9	6.3	6.6	8.6	8.6	10.5	11.5
York	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.6	2.1	3.3	3.4	3.7	3.5
Puerto Rico: [2]										
Mayaguez	1.8	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.0	.6	.8	(1)	----------
Ponce	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.3	.9	1.0	(1)	----------
San Juan	4.4	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.7	3.2	2.1	3.3	(1)	----------
Rhode Island:										
Providence-Pawtucket	9.2	8.7	8.5	7.5	8.8	11.7	13.9	12.1	15.7	14.0
South Carolina:										
Charleston	.8	.8	.9	.7	.8	.8	1.0	1.0	1.4	1.1
Greenville	1.0	1.1	1.5	.8	1.3	1.8	1.5	1.2	2.0	1.3
Tennessee:										
Chattanooga	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.0	1.3	1.7	2.5	3.1	4.0	3.5
Knoxville	2.0	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.4	2.1	2.5	3.2	5.6	4.7
Memphis	2.9	2.9	3.1	2.4	2.7	2.9	3.7	4.2	5.3	4.8
Nashville	1.9	2.0	2.7	1.9	1.9	2.4	2.2	2.7	3.4	2.9
Texas:										
Austin	.2	.2	.3	.4	.5	.6	.7	.6	.8	.7
Beaumont-Port Arthur	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.9	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.3
Corpus Christi	.7	.6	.7	.7	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4	2.2	1.6
Dallas	1.5	1.7	2.5	3.1	4.8	5.7	6.1	5.7	8.3	[illegible]
El Paso	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.0
Fort Worth	.9	.8	1.1	1.4	2.8	2.6	3.3	3.5	4.0	3.5
Houston	2.2	2.1	2.5	3.2	4.5	6.1	7.8	6.5	8.3	7.3
San Antonio	1.5	1.1	1.4	1.6	2.6	3.0	3.3	2.7	3.3	2.5
Utah:										
Salt Lake City	3.3	3.4	3.6	2.7	3.7	3.5	3.0	2.3	3.2	2.6
Virginia:										
Newport News-Hampton	.7	.5	.6	.5	.6	.6	.6	.6	1.0	.8
Norfolk-Portsmouth	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.6	1.4	2.3	2.2
Richmond	.3	.4	.4	.4	.5	.9	1.0	.9	2.1	1.7
Roanoke	.2	.2	.3	.4	.4	.6	.6	.6	1.2	1.2
Washington:										
Seattle	12.8	7.8	7.9	6.7	12.0	17.7	16.1	11.9	16.9	15.9
Spokane	2.5	2.4	2.7	2.2	2.5	3.1	3.6	4.0	4.5	4.0
Tacoma	3.3	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.8	3.4	3.3	2.9	4.1	3.6
West Virginia:										
Charleston	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.7	2.2	2.1	2.7	2.4
Huntington-Ashland	1.8	2.1	1.9	1.4	1.8	2.3	2.5	3.1	3.9	3.5
Wheeling	1.3	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.7	1.7	2.5	2.6	3.8	3.8
Wisconsin:										
Kenosha	.8	1.0	2.0	1.8	.7	1.0	.4	.7	1.8	.7
Madison	.7	.6	.7	.6	.7	.8	.9	.8	1.0	.8
Milwaukee	5.3	5.6	5.9	4.2	5.4	7.8	8.9	8.8	15.3	8.7
Racine	.9	1.2	1.3	1.1	.8	.9	.8	1.1	1.9	1.3

[1] Not available.
[2] Program effective January 1961; sugarcane workers are not included.

NOTE: Comparability between years for a given area or for the same year among areas is affected by changes or differences in statutory or administrative factors.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–10. Insured Unemployment Rates Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69

[Insured unemployment as percent of average covered employment]

Major labor area	1969[1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Alabama:										
Birmingham	1.7	2.2	2.2	1.9	1.9	2.2	3.0	4.1	4.7	4.5
Mobile	1.8	2.0	2.3	1.9	2.1	3.0	3.3	4.5	5.7	4.5
Arizona:										
Phoenix	1.2	1.6	2.5	1.9	3.3	3.1	3.2	3.5	4.2	3.0
Arkansas:										
Little Rock-North Little Rock	.9	.8	.8	.7	1.2	1.3	1.8	2.3	3.2	2.6
California										
Anaheim-Santa Ana-Garden Grove	2.7	2.4	3.0	3.0	4.2	4.1	3.9	3.5	5.7	4.9
Fresno	6.5	7.5	6.7	6.1	6.9	7.6	8.2	8.9	9.2	7.4
Los Angeles-Long Beach	3.0	2.7	3.2	3.1	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.1	5.4	4.4
Sacramento	5.6	6.6	5.7	5.3	6.0	5.5	5.4	6.6	5.8	5.2
San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	4.0	4.3	5.6	5.3	6.4	5.8	5.8	5.3	7.0	6.6
San Diego	2.7	2.9	4.0	4.5	6.4	6.4	6.3	7.0	6.2	5.6
San Francisco-Oakland	2.7	4.2	3.5	3.3	4.5	4.0	4.3	4.1	4.9	4.0
San Jose	2.9	2.9	3.4	3.8	5.1	5.1	4.7	4.6	5.6	5.1
Stockton	7.4	8.3	8.3	6.5	7.7	8.2	8.6	9.7	9.5	8.8
Colorado:										
Denver	.5	.6	1.0	.9	1.6	1.7	2.3	2.1	2.1	1.8
Connecticut:										
Bridgeport	2.8	2.7	2.1	1.7	3.0	3.7	3.8	4.0	5.2	5.2
Hartford	1.7	1.5	1.0	.8	1.5	2.2	2.3	2.2	3.4	3.1
New Britain	3.5	3.0	1.8	1.5	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.2	6.5	5.4
New Haven	2.4	2.3	2.0	1.8	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.2	4.0	3.8
Stamford	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.2	2.1	2.9	3.0	2.5	2.8	2.5
Waterbury	3.7	4.0	2.4	2.5	3.4	4.6	4.9	4.1	6.2	5.6
Delaware:										
Wilmington	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.6	2.7	3.8	4.0	2.9
District of Columbia:										
Washington	1.3	.7	.9	.8	1.2	1.5	.9	1.8	1.8	1.5
Florida:										
Jacksonville	.5	.7	.6	.5	.9	1.2	1.9	2.1	2.8	1.8
Miami	1.4	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.5	3.4	4.3	4.6	3.5
Tampa-St. Petersburg	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.9	2.4	3.3	3.7	5.0	3.8
Georgia:										
Atlanta	2.4	.7	.9	.6	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.8	3.2	2.6
Augusta	3.4	.9	1.2	.8	1.1	1.7	2.0	2.1	3.4	2.6
Columbus	3.7	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.9	3.0	3.0	4.4	4.1
Macon	2.9	1.0	.7	.7	1.2	1.7	2.5	2.7	4.0	3.1
Savannah	3.3	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.8	2.5	2.9	3.2	5.6	4.2
Hawaii:										
Honolulu	2.1	2.2	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.4	3.4	3.4	3.2	1.9
Illinois:										
Chicago	.9	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.5	2.1	2.7	2.6	4.0	2.6
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	2.0	2.1	1.0	.8	1.4	1.5	1.8	2.4	3.7	3.5
Peoria	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.7	2.1	2.9	3.6	4.8	3.9
Rockford	1.2	1.0	1.1	.6	1.2	1.6	2.4	2.6	4.2	3.1
Indiana:										
Evansville	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.3	1.8	2.0	2.4	3.0	4.7	4.2
Fort Wayne	.5	.8	.7	.5	.8	1.2	1.8	1.8	3.0	2.3
Gary-Hammond-East Chicago	.9	1.3	1.1	.9	1.4	1.5	2.7	4.0	4.2	3.3
Indianapolis	.7	.9	.8	.7	1.0	1.4	1.7	1.9	3.0	2.4
South Bend	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.0	2.0	5.6	3.7	3.5	7.2	4.2
Terre Haute	1.5	2.5	2.4	2.3	3.2	3.0	3.4	4.2	5.0	4.6
Iowa:										
Cedar Rapids	.6	.5	.4	.4	.6	.8	.9	1.2	2.7	1.7
Des Moines	.8	.7	.8	.6	.9	1.2	1.4	1.8	2.5	2.0
Kansas:										
Wichita	1.9	1.2	1.0	.8	2.1	2.0	2.4	2.2	2.8	3.4
Kentucky:										
Louisville	.9	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.7	2.2	2.7	3.1	4.7	4.4
Louisiana:										
Baton Rouge	3.6	1.3	2.0	1.1	1.5	2.[illegible]	2.9	3.5	5.9	5.3
New Orleans	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.2	1.7	2.1	2.7	3.5	4.4	3.4
Shreveport	1.4	1.5	1.2	1.5	2.3	2.7	2.8	3.4	4.1	3.4
Maine:										
Portland	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.7	2.3	2.9	3.5	3.2	4.7	4.9
Maryland:										
Baltimore	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.5	2.2	2.8	3.3	4.0	4.7	4.3
Massachusetts:										
Boston	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.8	3.6	3.6	3.4	3.9	3.5
Brockton	3.3	3.2	3.6	3.2	4.4	6.5	8.2	7.4	7.5	7.8
Fall River	6.2	5.5	6.4	6.4	8.4	11.8	11.6	11.2	10.7	11.3
Lawrence-Haverhill	4.6	4.1	4.5	4.3	5.4	6.5	7.1	5.5	7.8	6.8
Lowell	4.1	3.9	5.3	4.9	7.1	8.3	8.4	7.6	9.1	9.4
New Bedford	5.5	5.1	6.1	5.3	6.1	7.6	8.1	6.9	(2)	(2)
Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke	2.9	2.9	3.1	2.7	3.7	4.5	5.5	5.4	5.9	5.7
Worcester	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.6	3.3	4.4	5.6	4.6	6.9	4.8

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–10. Insured Unemployment Rates Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69—Continued

Major labor area	1969[1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Michigan:										
Battle Creek	2.4	2.7	2.3	1.6	2.0	2.7	0.4	4.1	5.7	4.9
Detroit	1.8	2.0	2.4	2.4	1.6	2.4	3.0	4.1	8.1	4.9
Flint	2.0	2.3	3.4	2.2	1.5	2.0	2.2	2.9	7.7	2.7
Grand Rapids	1.9	2.0	2.1	1.5	1.3	2.3	2.6	3.0	4.5	3.5
Kalamazoo	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.3	1.7	2.1	2.9	2.9	3.8	3.1
Lansing	1.9	2.3	2.0	1.5	1.1	2.3	3.2	3.3	8.0	3.1
Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	2.7	3.3	2.5	1.3	1.9	3.4	3.1	3.3	6.1	5.4
Saginaw	1.5	1.7	2.6	1.0	.9	1.3	2.2	2.9	6.5	3.2
Minnesota:										
Duluth-Superior	2.9	3.0	3.2	2.6	3.8	5.0	6.3	6.1	6.5	6.0
Minneapolis-St. Paul	.5	.6	.7	.9	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.3	3.3	2.6
Mississippi:										
Jackson	.8	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.6	2.4	2.7	2.5	3.4	2.4
Missouri:										
Kansas City	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.3	4.7	4.2
St. Louis	2.2	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.7	4.8	3.6
Nebraska:										
Omaha	.9	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.9	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.4	1.8
New Hampshire:										
Manchester	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.0	2.6	4.2	5.3	4.2	5.8	5.2
New Jersey:										
Atlantic City	5.5	4.7	4.8	5.5	6.1	8.1	8.9	8.2	10.1	10.4
Jersey City	4.6	4.2	3.7	3.2	4.0	4.7	5.2	4.8	5.7	(2)
Newark	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.6	3.2	3.9	4.3	4.1	4.9	4.6
New Brunswick-Perth Amboy	3.1	2.9	3.0	2.6	3.4	4.2	4.7	4.8	5.6	5.1
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.0	3.7	4.9	4.9	4.6	5.8	5.8
Trenton	2.3	2.3	2.7	2.4	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.3	5.9	5.4
New Mexico:										
Albuquerque	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.8	2.7	2.6	3.1	4.7	3.3
New York:										
Albany-Schenectady-Troy	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.2	3.1	3.5	3.6	4.6	4.3
Binghamton	2.0	1.5	1.5	1.6	2.1	2.5	3.6	3.0	3.6	3.4
Buffalo	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.7	3.1	3.7	5.0	5.4	6.9	5.2
New York	2.1	2.4	3.0	3.5	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.5	5.1	4.4
Rochester	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	2.1	1.7	2.4	2.4	5.4	2.9
Syracuse	1.7	1.8	2.4	1.6	2.3	3.2	3.5	3.3	4.7	4.5
Utica-Rome	2.6	2.8	3.2	2.9	4.0	5.6	5.5	4.9	5.6	6.3
North Carolina:										
Asheville	1.4	2.2	2.1	1.5	2.1	3.0	3.5	3.6	5.1	3.8
Charlotte	.6	.7	1.1	.7	1.0	1.4	1.7	1.9	2.6	2.3
Durham	1.4	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.8	3.9	4.5	4.1	4.5	4.2
Greensboro-Winston-Salem-High Point	.8	.8	1.0	1.0	1.5	2.1	2.4	2.4	3.3	2.5
Ohio:										
Akron	.9	.7	1.1	.9	1.3	2.2	2.8	2.8	5.1	3.5
Canton	.9	1.3	1.5	1.1	1.6	2.5	4.3	5.2	6.2	5.1
Cincinnati	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.3	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.8	4.1	3.2
Cleveland	.7	.8	1.3	1.0	1.5	2.2	3.0	3.7	5.5	3.9
Columbus	.7	.6	1.0	.9	1.3	1.9	2.1	2.1	3.2	2.9
Dayton	.6	.8	.7	.7	1.1	1.5	2.2	2.5	3.8	3.0
Hamilton-Middletown	1.8	2.0	2.3	1.7	2.8	4.0	5.5	6.3	7.0	5.8
Lorain-Elyria	1.3	1.4	2.9	1.3	1.7	3.0	4.0	4.7	6.3	6.1
Steubenville-Weirton, W. Va.	1.3	1.7	2.2	1.6	1.6	1.9	4.2	4.6	5.0	4.7
Toledo	1.0	1.2	1.8	1.5	1.6	2.3	3.2	4.1	6.7	4.0
Youngstown-Warren	1.0	1.8	2.2	1.7	2.1	2.5	4.6	7.1	7.3	6.5
Oklahoma:										
Oklahoma City	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.5	3.8	2.8
Tulsa	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	2.0	2.3	3.2	3.0	4.5	3.4
Oregon:										
Portland	2.0	2.0	2.2	1.7	2.4	3.1	3.3	3.7	5.2	4.0
Pennsylvania:										
Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	1.5	1.4	1.9	1.4	1.9	3.1	4.5	4.3	5.5	4.7
Altoona	2.4	2.8	3.1	2.6	3.1	4.9	6.1	6.2	7.2	6.2
Erie	1.6	1.7	2.2	1.6	2.5	3.9	5.3	5.5	7.7	6.7
Harrisburg	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.9	2.6	3.6	4.3	5.1	3.9
Johnstown	3.6	4.3	4.6	3.4	4.6	5.9	8.7	12.1	15.3	11.2
Lancaster	.9	1.1	.8	.6	1.0	1.9	2.4	2.1	3.1	2.8
Philadelphia	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.7	2.5	3.8	4.6	4.4	5.2	4.6
Pittsburgh	1.6	1.9	2.1	1.7	2.4	3.7	5.6	7.1	8.4	6.9
Reading	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.9	3.3	4.2	3.3	5.3	4.2
Scranton	4.0	4.1	3.9	4.2	5.5	7.0	9.2	8.8	10.3	10.1
Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton	3.9	4.2	4.7	4.9	6.6	7.4	9.3	9.6	11.6	12.0
York	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.7	2.7	4.4	4.5	4.9	4.6
Puerto Rico:[3]										
Mayaguez	10.9	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.2	.2	(2)	----------
Ponce	8.0	.4	.3	.3	.4	.4	.3	.3	(2)	----------
San Juan	2.0	.9	.9	.7	.8	.8	.7	.9	(2)	----------
Rhode Island:										
Providence-Pawtucket	2.9	2.9	2.8	2.5	3.2	4.3	5.1	4.6	6.0	4.7
South Carolina:										
Charleston	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.9	2.1	2.9	2.9	4.1	2.8
Greenville	1.1	1.2	1.6	.9	1.6	2.3	2.2	1.9	3.3	2.2
Tennessee:										
Chattanooga	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.6	1.7	2.2	3.4	4.1	5.3	4.9
Knoxville	1.5	1.9	2.1	1.8	1.7	2.8	2.8	3.9	6.4	5.7
Memphis	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.1	1.7	1.9	2.5	3.0	3.8	3.7
Nashville	.8	1.0	1.3	.9	1.4	2.0	2.1	2.6	3.6	3.1

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–10. Insured Unemployment Rates Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–69—Continued

Major labor area	1969 [1]	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Texas:										
Austin	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.6	2.4	2.0
Beaumont-Port Arthur	2.9	1.8	1.8	1.3	2.5	3.4	3.6	3.9	4.2	4.1
Corpus Christi	2.2	.9	1.2	1.2	2.1	2.8	3.1	3.2	4.9	3.7
Dallas	.2	.3	.5	.7	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.7	2.6	2.3
El Paso	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.9	3.0	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.3
Fort Worth	.4	.4	.6	.7	1.5	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.8	2.5
Houston	.4	.4	.5	.7	1.2	1.6	2.1	1.8	4.2	2.1
San Antonio	.8	.6	.8	1.0	2.0	2.6	2.9	2.6	3.0	1.9
Utah:										
Salt Lake City	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.1	3.4	2.8	2.4	1.9	2.8	2.4
Virginia:										
Newport News-Hampton	.9	.8	1.0	.9	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.3	2.2	2.0
Norfolk-Portsmouth	.9	.8	1.2	.9	1.2	1.6	1.8	1.6	2.7	2.5
Richmond	.2	.3	1.2	.2	.4	.6	.7	.7	1.7	1.4
Roanoke	.3	.3	.5	.7	.8	1.3	1.4	1.3	3.0	2.9
Washington:										
Seattle	2.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	3.8	5.4	4.9	3.5	5.3	5.1
Spokane	3.6	3.5	4.1	3.5	4.5	5.7	6.3	7.1	11.0	6.7
Tacoma	3.9	2.8	2.8	2.9	4.6	5.8	5.8	5.3	7.5	6.5
West Virginia:										
Charleston	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.7	2.3	2.9	3.7	3.7	4.5	4.0
Huntington-Ashland	2.0	4.4	2.8	2.3	3.2	4.2	4.8	6.0	7.4	6.5
Wheeling	2.9	3.8	3.5	3.1	4.2	4.3	6.1	6.9	9.1	8.5
Wisconsin:										
Kenosha	2.2	3.2	3.7	4.0	2.6	3.2	1.2	2.6	7.0	2.2
Madison	.7	.7	.9	.9	1.3	1.5	1.9	1.8	2.4	1.9
Milwaukee	1.0	1.1	1.2	.9	1.3	2.0	2.4	2.4	4.1	2.4
Racine	1.5	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.3	3.2	5.6	3.8

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.
[2] Not available.
[3] Program effective January 1961; sugarcane workers are not included.

NOTE: Comparability between years for a given area or for the same year among areas is affected by changes or differences in statutory or administrative factors.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–11. Civilian Labor Force and Unemployment in the 10 Largest States, by Color: Annual Averages, 1967–69[1]

[Numbers in thousands]

State and employment status		Total	White	Negro and other races
1967				
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE				
United States		3.8	3.4	7.4
10 States combined		4.1	3.6	8.0
California		5.8	5.5	9.4
New York		3.7	3.5	6.0
Pennsylvania		3.7	3.3	8.1
Illinois		3.2	2.4	9.0
Texas		3.3	2.9	5.7
Ohio		3.8	3.2	9.2
Michigan		4.1	3.3	11.0
New Jersey		3.8	3.3	8.1
Florida		4.3	3.8	6.7
Massachusetts		3.0	2.9	(1)
1968				
United States:	Civilian labor force	78,740	69,980	8,760
	Unemployed	2,815	2,225	590
	Unemployment rate	3.6	3.2	6.7
10 States combined:	Civilian labor force	43,160	38,740	4,420
	Unemployed	1,570	1,265	305
	Unemployment rate	3.6	3.3	6.8
California:	Civilian labor force	7,570	6,810	760
	Unemployed	390	330	60
	Unemployment rate	5.1	4.8	7.9
New York:	Civilian labor force	7,230	6,500	740
	Unemployed	230	195	30
	Unemployment rate	3.1	3.0	4.3
Pennsylvania:	Civilian labor force	4,630	4,240	390
	Unemployed	155	125	30
	Unemployment rate	3.4	3.0	7.3
Illinois:	Civilian labor force	4,490	4,020	460
	Unemployed	130	95	35
	Unemployment rate	2.9	2.3	7.7
Texas:	Civilian labor force	4,300	3,700	600
	Unemployed	145	110	35
	Unemployment rate	3.4	2.9	6.0
Ohio:	Civilian labor force	4,160	3,790	370
	Unemployed	145	110	35
	Unemployment rate	3.4	2.9	9.1
Michigan:	Civilian labor force	3,420	3,060	360
	Unemployed	135	105	30
	Unemployment rate	3.9	3.4	8.2
New Jersey:	Civilian labor force	2,870	2,550	320
	Unemployed	95	70	25
	Unemployment rate	3.3	2.8	7.3
Florida:	Civilian labor force	2,260	1,920	340
	Unemployed	85	65	20
	Unemployment rate	3.8	3.3	6.0
Massachusetts:	Civilian labor force	2,230	2,150	80
	Unemployed	65	60	(1)
	Unemployment rate	2.9	2.8	(1)

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–11. Civilian Labor Force and Unemployment in the 10 Largest States, by Color: Annual Averages, 1967–69 [1]—Continued

State and employment status		Total	White	Negro and other races
	1969			
United States:	Civilian labor force	80,733	71,779	8,954
	Unemployed	2,831	2,261	570
	Unemployment rate	3.5	3.1	6.4
10 States combined:	Civilian labor force	44,338	39,842	4,496
	Unemployed	1,591	1,304	287
	Unemployment rate	3.6	3.3	6.4
California:	Civilian labor force	7,662	6,934	728
	Unemployed	393	338	56
	Unemployment rate	5.1	4.9	7.6
New York:	Civilian labor force	7,455	6,665	790
	Unemployed	244	205	39
	Unemployment rate	3.3	3.1	4.9
Pennsylvania:	Civilian labor force	4,765	4,352	413
	Unemployed	153	127	27
	Unemployment rate	3.2	2.9	6.4
Illinois:	Civilian labor force	4,589	4,121	468
	Unemployed	132	102	30
	Unemployment rate	2.9	2.5	6.4
Texas:	Civilian labor force	4,478	3,873	605
	Unemployed	144	105	38
	Unemployment rate	3.2	2.7	6.3
Ohio:	Civilian labor force	4,296	3,935	362
	Unemployed	148	119	29
	Unemployment rate	3.4	3.0	7.9
Michigan:	Civilian labor force	3,477	3,109	369
	Unemployed	138	109	28
	Unemployment rate	4.0	3.5	7.6
New Jersey:	Civilian labor force	2,930	2,588	342
	Unemployed	92	72	20
	Unemployment rate	3.1	2.8	5.8
Florida:	Civilian labor force	2,367	2,037	331
	Unemployed	81	65	16
	Unemployment rate	3.4	3.2	4.8
Massachusetts:	Civilian labor force	2,316	2,228	88
	Unemployed	66	62	4
	Unemployment rate	2.9	2.8	5.0

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[1] Data for the civilian labor force are rounded to the nearest 10,000, unemployment to the nearest 5,000. Unemployment levels and rates are not shown separately where the unemployment estimate is less than 5,000. Individual items are rounded independently and therefore may not add to totals.

SOURCE: Based on the Current Population Survey, a national sample survey of households conducted monthly by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. (The CPS is also the source of the data shown in sections A and B of this report.) These data differ for a number of reasons from the estimates prepared by the Manpower Administration's affiliated State employment security agencies and published in preceding tables in this section; variations occur because of differences in definition and coverage, sources of information, methods of collection, and estimating procedures. Sampling variability and response errors are additional reasons for discrepancies.

Table D–12. Unemployment Rates in the 20 Largest SMSA's and Their Central Cities: Annual Averages, 1967–69

Area		1969	1968	1967
New York:	SMSA	3.2	3.0	3.7
	Central city	3.6	3.1	4.1
Los Angeles-Long Beach:	SMSA	4.8	4.7	5.6
	Central city	5.4	5.4	6.6
Chicago:	SMSA	3.0	3.0	3.3
	Central city	3.4	3.8	4.3
Philadelphia:	SMSA	2.9	3.2	3.7
	Central city	3.6	3.9	4.4
Detroit:	SMSA	4.1	3.8	4.5
	Central city	5.5	5.1	5.2
San Francisco-Oakland:	SMSA	4.5	4.8	5.4
	Central city	4.8	6.2	6.3
Boston:	SMSA	2.8	2.5	2.9
Washington, D.C.:	SMSA	2.6	2.7	2.3
	Central city	3.0	3.8	2.1
Pittsburgh:	SMSA	4.1	4.4	4.8
St. Louis:	SMSA	3.5	3.1	4.4
	Central city	4.9	4.9	6.6
Newark:	SMSA	2.7	4.1	4.5
Cleveland:	SMSA	3.1	3.5	3.8
	Central city	5.1	5.4	5.8
Baltimore:	SMSA	3.5	3.4	3.7
	Central city	4.5	5.0	5.5
Minneapolis-St. Paul:	SMSA	2.3	2.4	2.2
	Central city	2.4	3.1	2.6
Houston:	SMSA	3.2	3.3	3.3
	Central city	3.3	3.4	3.7
Dallas:	SMSA	2.2	2.3	2.5
	Central city	2.5	2.6	2.5
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic:	SMSA	3.6	2.6	2.8
Buffalo:	SMSA	3.7	4.0	4.2
Milwaukee:	SMSA	2.3	2.9	3.0
	Central city	2.2	3.7	4.0
Cincinnati:	SMSA	2.7	2.9	2.8

SOURCE: See source note, table D–11. In addition to the reasons cited therein concerning differences from the estimates prepared by the State employment security agencies, these data are based on 1960 definitions of the areas.

Table D–13. Civilian Labor Force and Unemployment in the 20 Largest SMSA's and Their Central Cities by Color, and Selected Data for Age and Sex: Annual Averages, 1968–69[1]

[Numbers in thousands]

Area and employment status		Standard metropolitan statistical area						Central city		
		Total	White	Negro and other races	Male, 20 years and over	Female, 20 years and over	Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	Total	White	Negro and other races
	1968									
New York:	Civilian labor force	4,690	4,050	640	2,770	1,650	270	3,280	2,710	570
	Unemployed	141	116	25	66	46	30	102	80	22
	Unemployment rate	3.0	2.9	3.9	2.4	2.8	11.1	3.1	2.9	4.0
Los Angeles-Long Beach:	Civilian labor force	3,340	2,970	370	1,990	1,110	240	1,320	1,070	260
	Unemployed	157	125	32	62	60	35	71	49	22
	Unemployment rate	4.7	4.2	8.5	3.1	5.4	14.3	5.4	4.6	8.6
Chicago:	Civilian labor force	2,800	2,410	390	1,630	930	240	1,470	1,110	360
	Unemployed	85	55	29	27	28	30	57	30	27
	Unemployment rate	3.0	2.3	7.6	1.7	3.0	12.7	3.8	2.7	7.4
Philadelphia:	Civilian labor force	1,930	1,570	360	1,140	640	150	820	560	260
	Unemployed	62	40	21	20	23	19	32	17	16
	Unemployment rate	3.2	2.6	6.0	1.8	3.6	12.6	3.9	2.9	6.1
Detroit:	Civilian labor force	1,600	1,330	270	960	480	160	670	440	230
	Unemployed	61	40	21	20	19	21	34	17	17
	Unemployment rate	3.8	3.0	7.5	2.1	3.9	13.6	5.1	3.9	7.3
San Francisco-Oakland:	Civilian labor force	1,360	1,160	200	800	480	90	460	330	140
	Unemployed	65	50	16	27	21	17	29	19	9
	Unemployment rate	4.8	4.3	7.9	3.4	4.4	19.6	6.2	6.0	6.6
Boston:	Civilian labor force	1,100	1,060	50	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployed	27	26	(1)	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployment rate	2.5	2.4	(1)	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
Washington, D.C.:	Civilian labor force	1,060	780	280	--------	--------	--------	350	100	250
	Unemployed	28	16	12	--------	--------	--------	13	(1)	11
	Unemployment rate	2.7	2.0	4.4	--------	--------	--------	3.8	(1)	4.5
Pittsburgh:	Civilian labor force	890	830	60	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployed	39	32	8	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployment rate	4.4	3.8	11.9	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
St. Louis:	Civilian labor force	890	760	130	--------	--------	--------	270	160	110
	Unemployed	28	19	9	--------	--------	--------	13	5	8
	Unemployment rate	3.1	2.5	6.9	--------	--------	--------	4.9	3.4	7.0
Newark:	Civilian labor force	790	640	150	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployed	32	19	14	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployment rate	4.1	2.9	9.1	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
Cleveland:	Civilian labor force	740	630	110	--------	--------	--------	250	160	90
	Unemployed	26	17	9	--------	--------	--------	14	5	8
	Unemployment rate	3.5	2.7	8.3	--------	--------	--------	5.4	3.3	9.2
Baltimore:	Civilian labor force	750	550	200	--------	--------	--------	370	200	170
	Unemployed	25	13	12	--------	--------	--------	18	7	11
	Unemployment rate	3.4	2.4	6.1	--------	--------	--------	5.0	3.7	6.5
Minneapolis-St. Paul:	Civilian labor force	690	(2)	(2)	--------	--------	--------	320	(2)	(2)
	Unemployed	17	(2)	(2)	--------	--------	--------	10	(2)	(2)
	Unemployment rate	2.4	(2)	(2)	--------	--------	--------	3.1	(2)	(2)
Houston:	Civilian labor force	680	540	150	--------	--------	--------	570	410	160
	Unemployed	22	14	8	--------	--------	--------	20	10	9
	Unemployment rate	3.3	2.6	5.7	--------	--------	--------	3.4	2.5	5.8
Dallas:	Civilian labor force	620	540	80	--------	--------	--------	400	320	80
	Unemployed	14	11	(1)	--------	--------	--------	10	7	(1)
	Unemployment rate	2.3	2.1	(1)	--------	--------	--------	2.6	2.4	(1)
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic:	Civilian labor force	570	530	(1)	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployed	15	13	(1)	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployment rate	2.6	2.5	(1)	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
Buffalo:	Civilian labor force	540	510	(1)	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployed	22	19	(1)	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployment rate	4.0	3.7	(1)	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
Milwaukee:	Civilian labor force	510	470	(1)	--------	--------	--------	300	260	(1)
	Unemployed	15	11	(1)	--------	--------	--------	11	8	(1)
	Unemployment rate	2.9	2.4	(1)	--------	--------	--------	3.7	2.9	(1)
Cincinnati:	Civilian labor force	440	390	50	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployed	13	10	(1)	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
	Unemployment rate	2.9	2.6	(1)	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–13. Civilian Labor Force and Unemployment i
by Color, and Selected Data for Age and Sex:

Area and employment status		Standard	
		Total	White
	1969		
New York:	Civilian labor force	4,792	4,112
	Unemployed	155	124
	Unemployment rate	3.2	3.0
Los Angeles-Long Beach:	Civilian labor force	3,423	3,058
	Unemployed	163	134
	Unemployment rate	4.8	4.4
Chicago:	Civilian labor force	2,842	2,470
	Unemployed	85	61
	Unemployment rate	3.0	2.5
Philadelphia:	Civilian labor force	1,917	1,551
	Unemployed	56	35
	Unemployment rate	2.9	2.3
Detroit:	Civilian labor force	1,653	1,360
	Unemployed	67	44
	Unemployment rate	4.1	3.2
San Francisco-Oakland:	Civilian labor force	1,346	1,147
	Unemployed	61	49
	Unemployment rate	4.5	4.3
Boston:	Civilian labor force	1,152	1,105
	Unemployed	32	30
	Unemployment rate	2.8	2.8
Washington, D.C.:	Civilian labor force	1,091	808
	Unemployed	28	20
	Unemployment rate	2.6	2.4
Pittsburgh:	Civilian labor force	912	844
	Unemployed	37	32
	Unemployment rate	4.1	3.8
St. Louis:	Civilian labor force	908	767
	Unemployed	32	21
	Unemployment rate	3.5	2.7
Newark:	Civilian labor force	793	629
	Unemployed	21	14
	Unemployment rate	2.7	2.3
Cleveland:	Civilian labor force	778	661
	Unemployed	24	15
	Unemployment rate	3.1	2.3
Baltimore:	Civilian labor force	772	560
	Unemployed	27	14
	Unemployment rate	3.5	2.5
Minneapolis-St. Paul:	Civilian labor force	721	711
	Unemployed	16	15
	Unemployment rate	2.3	2.2
Houston:	Civilian labor force	720	579
	Unemployed	23	13
	Unemployment rate	3.2	2.3
Dallas:	Civilian labor force	669	580
	Unemployed	15	10
	Unemployment rate	2.2	1.8
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic:	Civilian labor force	585	535
	Unemployed	21	17
	Unemployment rate	3.6	3.2
Buffalo:	Civilian labor force	547	516
	Unemployed	20	15
	Unemployment rate	3.7	3.0
Milwaukee:	Civilian labor force	527	482
	Unemployed	12	10
	Unemployment rate	2.3	2.1
Cincinnati:	Civilian labor force	431	385
	Unemployed	11	9
	Unemployment rate	2.7	2.5

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[1] Data for the civilian labor force are rounded to the nearest 10,000 and are not shown separately where the labor force is less than 50,000. Unemployment levels and rates are not shown separately where the unemployment estimate is less than 5,000. Individual items are rounded independently and therefore may not add to totals.

Table D–14. Employment Status of the Noninstitutional Population in Urban Poverty and Other Urban Neighborhoods,[1] by Color, Age, and Sex: Annual Averages, 1967–69

[Numbers in thousands]

Neighborhood and employment status	Total	White				Negro and other races			
		Total	Male, 20 years and over	Female, 20 years and over	Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	Total	Male, 20 years and over	Female, 20 years and over	Both sexes, 16 to 19 years
1967									
URBAN POVERTY NEIGHBORHOODS									
Civilian noninstitutional population	11,630	7,048	2,962	3,416	671	4,582	1,784	2,241	557
Civilian labor force	6,664	3,892	2,281	1,296	314	2,772	1,433	1,086	253
Employed	6,211	3,686	2,189	1,230	267	2,525	1,351	1,008	167
Unemployed	454	206	93	65	47	248	82	80	86
Unemployment rate	6.8	5.3	4.1	5.0	15.0	8.9	5.7	7.4	34.0
OTHER URBAN NEIGHBORHOODS									
Civilian noninstitutional population	60,822	56,747	23,831	27,341	5,575	4,075	1,665	1,937	472
Civilian labor force	36,720	33,938	20,308	10,882	2,749	2,782	1,487	1,094	202
Employed	35,464	32,851	19,916	10,496	2,440	2,613	1,439	1,027	148
Unemployed	1,257	1,087	391	387	309	169	47	67	54
Unemployment rate	3.4	3.2	1.9	3.6	11.2	6.1	3.2	6.1	26.9
1968									
URBAN POVERTY NEIGHBORHOODS									
Civilian noninstitutional population	11,445	6,911	2,892	3,363	655	4,534	1,740	2,230	564
Civilian labor force	6,470	3,774	2,213	1,258	303	2,696	1,385	1,078	234
Employed	6,084	3,585	2,127	1,198	260	2,499	1,318	1,010	170
Unemployed	386	188	86	60	43	198	66	67	64
Unemployment rate	6.0	5.0	3.9	4.8	14.3	7.3	4.8	6.2	27.3
OTHER URBAN NEIGHBORHOODS									
Civilian noninstitutional population	62,282	57,857	24,292	27,900	5,665	4,426	1,783	2,097	546
Civilian labor force	37,696	34,681	20,633	11,277	2,771	3,015	1,584	1,189	241
Employed	36,506	33,662	20,274	10,925	2,463	2,844	1,537	1,125	182
Unemployed	1,190	1,019	359	352	308	171	47	64	59
Unemployment rate	3.2	2.9	1.7	3.1	11.1	5.7	3.0	5.4	24.5
1969									
URBAN POVERTY NEIGHBORHOODS									
Civilian noninstitutional population	11,129	6,706	2,849	3,239	618	4,423	1,699	2,172	552
Civilian labor force	6,347	3,728	2,167	1,263	298	2,619	1,334	1,059	225
Employed	5,999	3,570	2,099	1,213	257	2,430	1,276	990	163
Unemployed	347	158	68	49	41	189	58	69	63
Unemployment rate	5.5	4.2	3.1	3.9	13.8	7.2	4.3	6.5	27.9
OTHER URBAN NEIGHBORHOODS									
Civilian noninstitutional population	63,857	59,056	24,792	28,486	5,779	4,800	1,936	2,282	582
Civilian labor force	39,006	35,760	20,944	11,864	2,951	3,245	1,698	1,306	241
Employed	37,779	34,695	20,573	11,479	2,643	3,083	1,646	1,251	186
Unemployed	1,227	1,065	371	385	308	162	52	55	55
Unemployment rate	3.1	3.0	1.8	3.2	10.4	5.0	3.1	4.2	22.8

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[1] Pertains only to SMSA's with populations of 250,000 or more. The poverty neighborhood classification used is based on a ranking of census tracts according to 1960 data on income, education, skills, housing, and proportion of broken families. The poorest one-fifth of these tracts in the Nation's 100 largest metropolitan areas are considered poverty neighborhoods. As such, some persons above the poverty level are probably included and some poor persons living in other urban neighborhoods excluded.

SOURCE: See source note, table D–11.

Table E–1. Estimates and Projections of the Total Population, by Age, 1950 to 1990[1]

[Numbers in thousands]

Age	Estimates			Projections			Number change				Percent change			
	1950	1960	1967	1970	1980	1990	1950–60	1960–70	1970–80	1980–90	1950–60	1960–70	1970–80	1980–90
Total	152,271	180,684	199,118	207,326	243,291	286,501	28,413	26,642	35,965	43,210	18.7	14.7	17.3	17.8
Under 16 years	43,131	58,868	63,678	65,300	76,737	95,433	15,737	6,432	11,437	18,696	36.5	10.9	17.5	24.4
Under 5 years	16,410	20,364	19,191	20,027	27,972	31,493	3,954	−337	7,945	3,521	24.1	−1.7	39.7	12.6
5 to 15 years	26,721	38,504	44,486	45,273	48,765	63,940	11,783	6,769	3,492	15,175	44.1	17.6	7.7	31.1
16 years and over	109,141	121,814	135,440	142,025	166,552	191,068	12,673	20,211	24,527	24,516	11.6	16.6	17.3	14.7
16 to 24 years	20,222	21,814	29,373	32,347	37,937	40,180	1,592	10,533	5,590	2,243	7.9	48.3	17.3	5.9
16 to 19 years	8,542	10,698	14,176	15,086	16,940	19,512	2,156	4,388	1,854	2,572	25.2	41.0	12.3	15.2
20 to 24 years	11,680	11,116	15,197	17,261	20,997	20,668	−564	6,145	3,736	−329	−4.8	55.3	21.6	−1.6
25 to 44 years	45,673	47,134	47,077	48,276	62,373	79,313	1,461	1,142	14,097	16,940	3.2	2.4	29.2	27.2
25 to 34 years	24,036	22,911	23,092	25,315	36,997	42,449	−1,125	2,404	11,682	5,452	−4.7	10.5	46.1	14.7
35 to 44 years	21,637	24,223	23,984	22,961	25,376	36,864	2,586	−1,262	2,415	11,488	12.0	−5.2	10.5	45.3
45 to 64 years	30,849	36,208	40,194	41,817	43,179	44,570	5,359	5,609	1,362	1,391	17.4	15.5	3.3	3.2
45 to 54 years	17,453	20,581	22,621	23,326	22,147	24,542	3,128	2,745	−1,179	2,395	17.9	13.3	−5.1	10.8
55 to 64 years	13,396	15,627	17,573	18,491	21,032	20,028	2,231	2,864	2,541	−1,004	16.7	18.3	13.7	−4.8
65 years and over	12,397	16,658	18,796	19,585	23,063	27,005	4,261	2,927	3,478	3,942	34.4	17.6	17.8	17.1

[1] Data relate to July 1 and include the Armed Forces abroad. Alaska and Hawaii are also included beginning 1950.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P–25: for 1950 data, No. 311; for 1967 data, No. 385; for other years, No. 381, Series B.

Table E–2. Total Population,[1] Total Labor Force, and Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age, 1960 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

Sex and age	Total population, July 1					Total labor force, annual averages					Labor force participation rates, annual averages (percent)				
	Actual		Projected			Actual		Projected			Actual		Projected		
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960[2]	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
BOTH SEXES															
16 years and over	121,817	131,184	141,713	153,627	165,473	72,104	77,177	84,617	92,183	99,942	59.2	58.8	59.7	60.0	60.4
MALE															
16 years and over	59,420	63,608	68,485	74,127	79,824	48,933	50,946	54,960	59,356	64,061	82.4	80.1	80.3	80.1	80.3
16 to 19 years	5,398	6,880	7,587	8,302	8,510	3,162	3,831	4,280	4,664	4,824	58.6	55.7	56.4	56.2	56.7
20 to 24 years	5,553	6,872	8,621	9,609	10,394	4,939	5,926	7,466	8,331	9,064	88.9	86.2	86.6	86.7	87.2
25 to 34 years	11,347	11,091	12,540	15,557	18,285	10,940	10,653	12,063	14,966	17,590	96.4	96.0	96.2	96.2	96.2
35 to 44 years	11,878	11,962	11,303	11,068	12,496	11,454	11,504	10,930	10,703	12,084	96.4	96.2	96.7	96.7	96.7
45 to 54 years	10,148	10,740	11,289	11,379	10,757	9,568	10,131	10,725	10,810	10,219	94.3	94.3	95.0	95.0	95.0
55 to 64 years	7,564	8,131	8,759	9,287	9,776	6,445	6,768	7,388	7,795	8,184	85.2	83.2	84.3	83.9	83.7
55 to 59 years	4,144	4,421	4,794	4,990	5,296	3,727	3,929	4,339	4,516	4,793	89.9	88.9	90.5	90.5	90.5
60 to 64 years	3,420	3,710	3,965	4,297	4,480	2,718	2,839	3,049	3,279	3,391	79.5	76.5	76.9	76.3	75.7
65 years and over	7,530	7,932	8,385	8,923	9,606	2,425	2,131	2,108	2,087	2,096	32.2	26.9	25.1	23.4	21.8
65 to 69 years	2,941	2,871	3,137	3,362	3,651	1,348	1,209	1,142	1,136	1,143	45.8	42.1	36.4	33.8	31.3
70 years and over	4,590	5,061	5,248	5,561	5,955	1,077	922	966	951	953	23.5	18.2	18.4	17.1	16.0
FEMALE															
16 years and over	62,397	67,578	73,228	79,500	85,649	23,171	26,232	29,657	32,827	35,881	37.1	38.8	40.5	41.3	41.9
16 to 19 years	5,275	6,681	7,375	8,081	8,221	2,061	2,519	2,908	3,201	3,286	39.1	37.7	39.4	39.6	40.0
20 to 24 years	5,547	6,796	8,483	9,446	10,230	2,558	3,375	4,267	4,865	5,380	46.1	49.7	50.3	51.5	52.6
25 to 34 years	11,605	11,267	12,680	15,582	18,232	4,159	4,336	4,894	6,124	7,347	35.8	38.5	38.6	39.3	40.3
35 to 44 years	12,348	12,470	11,694	11,391	12,771	5,325	5,724	5,555	5,582	6,386	43.1	45.9	47.5	49.0	50.0
45 to 54 years	10,438	11,304	12,071	12,195	11,437	5,150	5,714	6,675	7,024	6,805	49.3	50.5	55.3	57.6	59.5
55 to 64 years	8,070	8,835	9,741	10,558	11,279	2,964	3,587	4,267	4,826	5,337	36.7	40.6	43.8	45.7	47.3
55 to 59 years	4,321	4,736	5,252	5,577	5,983	1,803	2,209	2,705	3,023	3,362	41.7	46.6	51.5	54.2	56.2
60 to 64 years	3,749	4,099	4,489	4,981	5,296	1,161	1,378	1,562	1,803	1,975	31.0	33.6	34.8	36.2	37.3
65 years and over	9,115	10,225	11,186	12,248	13,481	954	976	1,091	1,205	1,340	10.5	9.5	9.8	9.8	9.9
65 to 69 years	3,347	3,427	3,755	4,122	4,580	579	585	653	717	797	17.3	17.1	17.4	17.4	17.4
70 years and over	5,768	6,798	7,431	8,126	8,901	375	391	438	488	543	6.5	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.1

[1] These population data (and those in table E–4) differ from the figures shown in the preceding table and elsewhere in this report because they are based on earlier population estimates and projections.

[2] These data differ from the figures for the same age groups published in section A because they are based on different population estimates.

SOURCE: Population data from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P–25: for 1960, No. 241; for 1965, unpublished estimates; for 1970–80, No. 286, Series B. All other data from the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table E–3. Changes in the Total Labor Force, by Sex and Age, 1950 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

Sex and age	Actual		Projected		Number change			Percent change		
	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950–60	1960–70	1970–80	1950–60	1960–70	1970–80
BOTH SEXES										
16 years and over	63,858	72,104	84,617	99,942	8,246	12,513	15,325	12.9	17.4	18.1
16 to 24 years	12,440	12,720	18,921	22,554	273	6,208	3,633	2.2	48.8	19.2
25 to 44 years	29,263	31,878	33,442	43,407	2,615	1,564	9,965	8.9	4.9	29.8
25 to 34 years	15,145	15,099	16,957	24,937	−46	1,858	7,980	−.3	12.3	47.1
35 to 44 years	14,118	16,779	16,485	18,470	2,661	−294	1,985	18.8	−1.8	12.0
45 years and over	22,156	27,506	32,254	33,981	5,350	4,748	1,727	24.1	17.3	5.4
45 to 64 years	19,119	24,127	29,055	30,545	5,008	4,928	1,490	26.2	20.4	5.1
65 years and over	3,037	3,379	3,199	3,436	342	−180	237	11.3	−5.3	7.4
MALE										
16 years and over	45,446	48,933	54,960	64,061	3,487	6,027	9,101	7.7	12.3	16.6
16 to 24 years	8,045	8,101	11,746	13,888	49	3,652	2,142	.6	45.1	18.2
25 to 44 years	20,996	22,394	22,993	29,674	1,398	599	6,681	6.7	2.7	29.1
25 to 34 years	11,044	10,940	12,063	17,590	−104	1,123	5,527	−.9	10.3	45.8
35 to 44 years	9,952	11,454	10,930	12,084	1,502	−524	1,154	15.1	−4.6	10.6
45 years and over	16,405	18,438	20,221	20,499	2,033	1,783	278	12.4	9.7	1.4
45 to 64 years	13,952	16,013	18,113	18,403	2,061	2,100	290	14.8	13.1	1.6
65 years and over	2,453	2,425	2,108	2,096	−28	−317	−12	−1.1	−13.1	−.6
FEMALE										
16 years and over	18,412	23,171	29,657	35,881	4,759	6,486	6,224	25.8	28.0	21.0
16 to 24 years	4,395	4,619	7,175	8,666	224	2,556	1,491	5.1	55.3	20.8
25 to 44 years	8,267	9,484	10,449	13,733	1,217	965	3,284	14.7	10.2	31.4
25 to 34 years	4,101	4,159	4,894	7,347	58	735	2,453	1.4	17.7	50.1
35 to 44 years	4,166	5,325	5,555	6,386	1,159	230	831	27.8	4.3	15.0
45 years and over	5,751	9,068	12,033	13,482	3,317	2,965	1,449	57.7	32.7	12.0
45 to 64 years	5,167	8,114	10,942	12,142	2,947	2,828	1,200	57.0	34.9	11.0
65 years and over	584	954	1,091	1,340	370	137	249	63.4	14.4	22.8

Table E–4. Total Population, Total Labor Force, and Labor Force Participation Rates, by Color, Sex, and Age, 1960 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

Color, sex, and age	Total population, July 1					Total labor force, annual averages					Labor force participation rates, annual averages (percent)				
	Actual		Projected			Actual		Projected			Actual		Projected		
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
TOTAL															
16 years and over	121,817	131,184	141,713	153,627	165,473	72,104	77,177	84,617	92,183	99,942	59.2	58.8	59.7	60.0	60.4
WHITE															
Both sexes															
16 years and over	109,279	117,406	126,395	136,412	146,141	64,210	68,627	75,055	81,436	87,872	58.8	58.5	59.4	59.7	60.1
Male															
16 years and over	53,408	57,039	61,215	65,966	70,654	44,119	45,862	49,263	52,946	56,822	82.6	80.4	80.5	80.3	80.4
16 to 19 years	4,763	6,040	6,583	7,155	7,235	2,801	3,398	3,728	4,033	4,122	58.8	56.3	56.6	56.4	57.0
20 to 24 years	4,905	6,062	7,599	8,370	8,998	4,370	5,223	6,592	7,278	7,876	89.1	86.2	86.7	87.0	87.5
25 to 34 years	10,092	9,833	11,074	13,720	16,000	9,777	9,503	10,711	13,269	15,474	96.9	96.6	96.7	96.7	96.7
35 to 44 years	10,675	10,723	10,111	9,843	11,082	10,346	10,379	9,821	9,561	10,763	96.9	96.8	97.1	97.1	97.1
45 to 54 years	9,166	9,709	10,194	10,252	9,662	8,690	9,209	9,725	9,772	9,205	94.8	94.8	95.4	95.3	95.3
55 to 64 years	6,874	7,382	7,965	8,450	8,882	5,892	6,192	6,749	7,116	7,455	85.7	83.9	84.7	84.2	83.9
65 years and over	6,933	7,290	7,689	8,176	8,795	2,243	1,958	1,937	1,917	1,927	32.4	26.9	25.2	23.4	21.9
Female															
16 years and over	55,871	60,367	65,180	70,446	75,487	20,091	22,765	25,792	28,490	31,050	36.0	37.7	39.6	40.4	41.1
16 to 19 years	4,630	5,839	6,344	6,905	6,923	1,853	2,273	2,551	2,767	2,792	40.0	38.9	40.2	40.1	40.3
20 to 24 years	4,842	5,964	7,402	8,133	8,750	2,215	2,920	3,695	4,174	4,604	45.7	49.0	49.9	51.3	52.6
25 to 34 years	10,172	9,850	11,131	13,664	15,835	3,451	3,575	4,084	5,148	6,155	33.9	36.3	36.7	37.7	38.9
35 to 44 years	11,017	11,047	10,285	9,996	11,249	4,537	4,880	4,744	4,779	5,510	41.2	44.2	46.1	47.8	49.0
45 to 54 years	9,404	10,163	10,824	10,865	10,114	4,532	5,034	5,891	6,178	5,960	48.2	49.5	54.4	56.9	58.9
55 to 64 years	7,357	8,040	8,856	9,577	10,200	2,633	3,203	3,833	4,342	4,802	35.8	39.8	43.3	45.3	47.1
65 years and over	8,449	9,465	10,338	11,306	12,416	870	879	994	1,102	1,227	10.3	9.3	9.6	9.7	9.9
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES															
Both sexes															
16 years and over	12,538	13,779	15,319	17,215	19,334	7,894	8,551	9,560	10,746	12,072	63.0	62.1	62.4	62.4	62.4
Male															
16 years and over	6,011	6,569	7,269	8,160	9,170	4,814	5,084	5,695	6,409	7,241	80.1	77.4	78.3	78.5	79.0
16 to 19 years	635	841	1,004	1,148	1,275	361	435	552	631	702	56.8	51.7	55.0	55.0	55.1
20 to 24 years	648	810	1,022	1,239	1,396	569	702	874	1,053	1,189	87.8	86.7	85.5	85.0	85.2
25 to 34 years	1,255	1,258	1,466	1,837	2,285	1,163	1,150	1,351	1,697	2,116	92.7	91.4	92.2	92.4	92.6
35 to 44 years	1,203	1,239	1,192	1,225	1,414	1,108	1,126	1,109	1,142	1,321	92.1	90.9	93.0	93.2	93.4
45 to 54 years	982	1,031	1,095	1,127	1,095	878	923	999	1,037	1,014	89.4	89.5	91.2	92.0	92.6
55 to 64 years	690	749	794	837	894	553	575	639	679	730	80.1	76.8	80.5	81.1	81.7
65 years and over	598	641	696	747	811	182	173	171	170	169	30.4	27.0	24.6	22.8	20.8
Female															
16 years and over	6,527	7,212	8,050	9,055	10,164	3,080	3,467	3,865	4,337	4,831	47.2	48.1	48.0	47.9	47.5
16 to 19 years	645	843	1,031	1,176	1,298	208	247	357	434	494	32.2	29.3	34.6	36.9	38.1
20 to 24 years	705	832	1,081	1,313	1,480	343	455	572	691	776	48.7	54.7	52.9	52.6	52.4
25 to 34 years	1,433	1,418	1,549	1,918	2,397	708	762	810	976	1,192	49.4	53.7	52.3	50.9	49.7
35 to 44 years	1,331	1,423	1,409	1,395	1,522	788	844	811	803	876	59.2	59.3	57.6	57.6	57.6
45 to 54 years	1,034	1,141	1,247	1,330	1,323	618	680	784	846	845	59.8	59.6	62.9	63.6	63.9
55 to 64 years	713	795	885	981	1,079	331	383	434	484	535	46.4	48.2	49.0	49.3	49.6
65 years and over	666	760	848	942	1,065	84	96	97	103	113	12.6	12.6	11.4	10.9	10.6

SOURCE: Population data from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, including unpublished projections by color which are consistent with the projections for the total population published in Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 286, Series B. All other data from the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table E-5. Changes in the Total Labor Force, by Color, Sex, and Age, 1960 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

Color, sex, and age	Actual		Projected			Number change				Percent change			
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960-65	1965-70	1970-75	1975-80	1960-65	1965-70	1970-75	1975-80
TOTAL													
16 years and over	72,104	77,177	84,617	92,183	99,942	5,073	7,440	7,566	7,759	7.0	9.6	8.9	8.4
WHITE													
Both sexes													
16 years and over	64,210	68,627	75,055	81,436	87,872	4,417	6,428	6,381	6,436	6.9	9.4	8.5	7.9
16 to 24 years	11,239	13,814	16,566	18,252	19,394	2,575	2,752	1,686	1,142	22.9	19.9	10.2	6.3
25 to 44 years	28,111	28,337	29,360	32,757	37,902	226	1,023	3,397	5,145	.8	3.6	11.6	15.7
45 years and over	24,860	26,475	29,129	30,427	30,576	1,615	2,654	1,298	149	6.5	10.0	4.5	.5
45 to 64 years	21,747	23,638	26,198	27,408	27,422	1,891	2,560	1,210	14	8.7	10.8	4.6	.1
65 years and over	3,113	2,837	2,931	3,019	3,154	−276	94	88	135	−8.9	3.3	3.0	4.5
Male													
16 years and over	44,119	45,862	49,263	52,946	56,822	1,743	3,401	3,683	3,876	4.0	7.4	7.5	7.3
16 to 24 years	7,171	8,621	10,320	11,311	11,998	1,450	1,699	991	687	20.2	19.7	9.6	6.1
25 to 44 years	20,123	19,882	20,532	22,830	26,237	−241	650	2,298	3,407	−1.2	3.3	11.2	14.9
45 years and over	16,825	17,359	18,411	18,805	18,587	534	1,052	394	−218	3.2	6.1	2.1	−1.2
45 to 64 years	14,582	15,401	16,474	16,888	16,660	819	1,073	414	−228	5.6	7.0	2.5	−1.4
65 years and over	2,243	1,958	1,937	1,917	1,927	−285	−21	−20	10	−12.7	−1.1	−1.0	.5
Female													
16 years and over	20,091	22,765	25,792	28,490	31,050	2,674	3,027	2,698	2,560	13.3	13.3	10.5	9.0
16 to 24 years	4,068	5,193	6,246	6,941	7,396	1,125	1,053	695	455	27.7	20.3	11.1	6.6
25 to 44 years	7,988	8,455	8,828	9,927	11,665	467	373	1,099	1,738	5.8	4.4	12.4	17.5
45 years and over	8,035	9,116	10,718	11,622	11,989	1,081	1,602	904	367	13.5	17.6	8.4	3.2
45 to 64 years	7,165	8,237	9,724	10,520	10,762	1,072	1,487	796	242	15.0	18.1	8.2	2.3
65 years and over	870	879	994	1,102	1,227	9	115	108	125	1.0	13.1	10.9	11.3
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES													
Both sexes													
16 years and over	7,894	8,551	9,560	10,746	12,072	657	1,009	1,186	1,326	8.3	11.8	12.4	12.3
16 to 24 years	1,481	1,839	2,335	2,809	3,161	358	516	454	352	24.2	28.1	19.3	12.5
25 to 44 years	3,767	3,882	4,081	4,618	5,505	115	199	537	887	3.1	5.1	13.2	19.2
45 years and over	2,646	2,830	3,124	3,319	3,406	184	294	195	87	7.0	10.4	6.2	2.6
45 to 64 years	2,380	2,561	2,856	3,046	3,124	181	295	190	78	7.6	11.5	6.7	2.6
65 years and over	266	269	268	273	282	3	−1	5	9	1.1	−.4	1.9	3.3
Male													
16 years and over	4,814	5,084	5,695	6,409	7,241	270	611	714	832	5.6	12.0	12.5	13.0
16 to 24 years	930	1,137	1,426	1,684	1,891	207	289	258	207	22.3	25.4	18.1	12.3
25 to 44 years	2,271	2,276	2,460	2,839	3,437	5	184	379	598	.2	8.1	15.4	21.1
45 years and over	1,613	1,671	1,809	1,886	1,913	58	138	77	27	3.6	8.3	4.3	1.4
45 to 64 years	1,431	1,498	1,638	1,716	1,744	67	140	78	28	4.7	9.3	4.8	1.6
65 years and over	182	173	171	170	169	−9	−2	−1	−1	−4.9	−1.2	−.6	−.6
Female													
16 years and over	3,080	3,467	3,865	4,337	4,831	387	398	472	494	12.6	11.5	12.2	11.4
16 to 24 years	551	702	929	1,125	1,270	151	227	196	145	27.4	32.3	21.1	12.9
25 to 44 years	1,496	1,606	1,621	1,779	2,068	110	15	158	289	7.4	.9	9.7	16.2
45 years and over	1,033	1,159	1,315	1,433	1,493	126	156	118	60	12.2	13.5	9.0	4.2
45 to 64 years	949	1,063	1,218	1,330	1,380	114	155	112	50	12.0	14.6	9.2	3.8
65 years and over	84	96	97	103	113	12	1	6	10	14.3	1.0	6.2	9.7

Table E–6. Percent Distribution of the Total Labor Force, by Color, Sex, and Age, 1960 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

Sex and age	1960			1965			1970			1975			1980		
	Total	White	Negro and other races	Total	White	Negro and other races	Total	White	Negro and other races	Total	White	Negro and other races	Total	White	Negro and other races
BOTH SEXES															
16 years and over															
Number	72,104	64,210	7,894	77,177	68,627	8,551	84,617	75,055	9,560	92,183	81,436	10,746	99,942	87,872	12,072
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
16 to 24 years	17.6	17.5	18.8	20.3	20.1	21.5	22.4	22.1	24.6	22.8	22.4	26.1	22.6	22.1	26.2
25 to 44 years	44.2	43.8	47.7	41.7	41.3	45.4	39.5	39.1	42.7	40.5	40.2	43.0	43.4	43.1	45.6
45 to 64 years	33.5	33.9	30.1	33.9	34.4	29.9	34.3	34.9	29.9	33.0	33.7	28.3	30.6	31.2	25.9
65 years and over	4.7	4.8	3.4	4.0	4.1	3.1	3.8	3.9	2.8	3.6	3.7	2.5	3.4	3.6	2.3
MALE															
16 years and over															
Number	48,933	44,119	4,814	50,946	45,862	5,084	54,958	49,263	5,695	59,355	52,946	6,409	64,063	56,822	7,241
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
16 to 24 years	16.6	16.3	19.3	19.2	18.8	22.4	21.4	20.9	25.0	21.9	21.4	26.3	21.7	21.1	26.1
25 to 44 years	45.8	45.6	47.2	43.5	43.4	44.8	41.8	41.7	43.2	43.2	43.1	44.3	46.3	46.2	47.5
45 to 64 years	32.7	33.1	29.7	33.2	33.6	29.5	33.0	33.4	28.8	31.3	31.9	26.8	28.7	29.3	24.1
65 years and over	5.0	5.1	3.8	4.2	4.3	3.4	3.8	3.9	3.0	3.5	3.6	2.7	3.3	3.4	2.3
FEMALE															
16 years and over															
Number	23,171	20,091	3,080	26,232	22,765	3,467	29,657	25,792	3,865	32,827	28,490	4,337	35,881	31,050	4,831
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
16 to 24 years	19.9	20.2	17.9	22.5	22.8	20.2	24.2	24.2	24.0	24.6	24.4	25.9	24.2	23.8	26.3
25 to 44 years	40.9	39.8	48.6	38.4	37.1	46.3	35.2	34.2	41.9	35.7	34.8	41.0	38.3	37.6	42.8
45 to 64 years	35.0	35.7	30.8	35.5	36.2	30.7	36.9	37.7	31.5	36.1	36.9	30.7	33.8	34.7	28.6
65 years and over	4.1	4.3	2.7	3.7	3.9	2.8	3.7	3.9	2.5	3.7	3.9	2.4	3.7	4.0	2.3

Table E-7. Total Population, Total Labor Force, and Labor Force Participation Rates for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Region and State, 1960 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

Region and State	Total population [1]			Total labor force [1]			Labor force participation rates (percent)			Percent change [2]			
	Actual	Projected		Actual	Projected		Actual	Projected		Population		Labor force	
	1960 (April 1)	1970 (July 1)	1980 (July 1)	1960 (April 1)	1970 (annual average)	1980 (annual average)	1960	1970	1980	1960-70	1970-80	1960-70	1970-80
United States	120,735	140,966	164,726	69,237	83,875	99,204	57.4	59.5	60.2	16.8	16.9	21.1	18.3
Northeast	31,289	35,235	39,747	18,144	20,852	23,480	58.0	59.2	59.1	12.6	12.8	14.9	12.6
North Central	34,636	38,571	44,377	19,829	22,981	26,918	57.2	59.6	60.7	11.4	15.1	15.9	17.1
South	36,062	43,002	50,500	20,217	25,161	30,080	56.1	58.5	59.6	19.2	17.4	24.5	19.6
West	18,744	24,157	30,099	11,046	14,873	18,721	58.9	61.6	62.2	28.9	24.6	34.6	25.9
New England	7,277	8,197	9,386	4,296	4,971	5,691	59.0	60.6	60.6	12.6	14.5	15.7	14.5
Maine	652	707	791	366	406	460	56.1	57.4	58.2	8.4	11.9	10.9	13.3
New Hampshire	415	486	569	249	303	359	60.0	62.3	63.1	17.1	17.1	21.7	18.5
Vermont	261	297	340	147	177	207	56.3	59.6	60.9	13.8	14.5	20.4	16.9
Massachusetts	3,594	3,948	4,478	2,112	2,398	2,726	58.8	60.7	60.9	9.8	13.4	13.5	13.7
Rhode Island	604	664	726	358	391	422	59.3	58.9	58.1	9.9	9.3	9.2	7.9
Connecticut	1,751	2,095	2,482	1,064	1,296	1,517	60.8	61.9	61.1	19.6	18.5	21.8	17.1
Middle Atlantic	24,012	27,038	30,361	13,848	15,881	17,797	57.7	58.7	58.6	12.6	12.3	14.7	12.1
New York	11,921	13,528	15,117	6,963	8,011	8,876	58.4	59.2	58.7	13.5	11.7	15.0	10.8
New Jersey	4,233	5,087	5,990	2,496	3,024	3,539	59.0	59.4	59.1	20.2	17.8	21.2	17.0
Pennsylvania	7,858	8,423	9,254	4,389	4,846	5,382	55.9	57.5	58.2	7.2	9.9	10.4	11.1
East North Central	24,282	27,390	31,837	13,995	16,354	19,298	57.6	59.7	60.6	12.8	16.2	16.9	18.0
Ohio	6,490	7,422	8,682	3,692	4,394	5,203	56.9	59.2	59.9	14.4	17.0	19.0	18.4
Indiana	3,108	3,497	4,056	1,783	2,117	2,526	57.4	60.5	62.3	12.5	16.0	18.7	19.3
Illinois	6,939	7,699	8,896	4,094	4,642	5,406	59.0	60.3	60.8	11.0	15.5	13.4	16.5
Michigan	5,122	5,823	6,761	2,9 3	3,416	4,038	56.9	58.7	59.7	13.7	16.1	17.3	18.2
Wisconsin	2,623	2,949	3,442	1,513	1,785	2,125	57.7	60.5	61.7	12.4	16.7	18.0	19.0
West North Central	10,354	11,181	12,540	5,834	6,627	7,620	56.3	59.3	60.8	8.0	12.2	13.6	15.0
Minnesota	2,238	2,506	2,943	1,283	1,508	1,801	57.3	60.2	61.2	12.0	17.4	17.5	19.4
Iowa	1,857	1,942	2,140	1,037	1,162	1,323	55.8	59.8	61.8	4.6	10.2	12.1	13.9
Missouri	2,991	3,178	3,543	1,659	1,810	2,055	55.5	57.0	58.0	6.3	11.5	9.1	13.5
North Dakota	403	440	490	226	261	297	56.1	59.3	60.6	9.2	11.4	15.5	13.8
South Dakota	440	492	543	248	292	331	56.4	59.3	61.0	11.8	10.4	17.7	13.4
Nebraska	952	1,044	1,145	546	635	718	57.4	60.8	62.7	9.7	9.7	16.3	13.1
Kansas	1,473	1,579	1,736	835	959	1,095	56.7	60.7	63.1	7.2	9.9	14.8	14.2
South Atlantic	17,162	20,939	25,017	9,880	12,476	14,979	57.6	59.6	59.9	22.0	19.5	26.3	20.1
Delaware	296	365	450	177	221	272	59.8	60.5	60.4	23.3	23.3	24.9	23.1
Maryland	2,060	2,571	3,121	1,234	1,575	1,900	59.9	61.3	60.9	24.8	21.4	27.6	20.6
District of Columbia	562	611	713	368	399	470	65.5	65.3	65.9	8.7	16.7	8.4	17.8
Virginia	2,623	3,180	3,732	1,522	1,900	2,248	58.0	59.7	60.2	21.2	17.4	24.8	18.3
West Virginia	1,227	1,251	1,319	584	661	722	47.6	52.8	54.7	2.0	5.4	13.2	9.2
North Carolina	2,951	3,459	3,963	1,739	2,112	2,410	58.9	61.1	60.8	17.2	14.6	21.4	14.1
South Carolina	1,485	1,766	2,043	884	1,086	1,246	59.5	61.5	61.0	18.9	15.7	22.9	14.7
Georgia	2,548	3,073	3,576	1,500	1,890	2,192	58.9	61.5	61.3	20.6	16.4	26.0	16.0
Florida	3,410	4,663	6,100	1,872	2,632	3,519	54.9	56.4	57.7	36.7	30.8	40.6	33.7
East South Central	7,830	8,965	10,178	4,205	5,101	5,972	53.7	56.9	58.7	14.5	13.5	21.3	17.1
Kentucky	2,005	2,216	2,453	1,026	1,200	1,394	51.2	54.2	56.8	10.5	10.7	17.0	16.2
Tennessee	2,376	2,757	3,109	1,304	1,594	1,836	54.9	57.8	59.1	16.0	12.8	22.2	15.2
Alabama	2,096	2,413	2,802	1,142	1,392	1,659	54.5	57.7	59.2	15.1	16.1	21.9	19.2
Mississippi	1,353	1,579	1,814	733	915	1,083	54.2	57.9	59.7	16.7	14.9	24.8	18.4
West South Central	11,070	13,098	15,305	6,132	7,584	9,129	55.4	57.9	59.6	18.3	16.8	23.7	20.4
Arkansas	1,181	1,366	1,520	604	756	880	51.1	55.3	57.9	15.7	11.3	25.2	16.4
Louisiana	2,050	2,465	2,973	1,084	1,355	1,689	52.9	55.0	56.8	20.2	20.6	25.0	24.6
Oklahoma	1,591	1,776	1,949	845	998	1,142	53.1	56.2	58.6	11.6	9.7	18.1	14.4
Texas	6,248	7,491	8,863	3,599	4,475	5,418	57.6	59.7	61.1	19.9	18.3	24.3	21.1
Mountain	4,364	5,679	7,052	2,520	3,491	4,443	57.7	61.5	63.0	30.1	24.2	38.5	27.3
Montana	435	496	573	249	301	353	57.2	60.7	61.6	14.0	15.5	20.9	17.3
Idaho	423	489	577	245	309	377	57.9	63.2	65.3	15.6	18.0	26.1	22.0
Wyoming	214	247	292	128	156	185	59.8	63.2	63.4	15.4	18.2	21.9	18.6
Colorado	1,156	1,473	1,780	670	911	1,137	58.0	61.8	63.9	27.4	20.8	36.0	24.8
New Mexico	573	711	936	324	425	578	56.5	59.8	61.8	24.1	31.6	31.2	36.0
Arizona	827	1,236	1,638	466	727	993	56.3	58.8	60.6	49.5	32.5	56.0	36.6
Utah	542	709	892	312	448	580	57.6	63.2	65.0	30.8	25.8	43.6	29.5
Nevada	194	318	364	126	214	240	64.9	67.3	65.9	63.9	14.5	69.8	12.1
Pacific	14,380	18,478	23,047	8,526	11,372	14,278	59.3	61.5	62.0	28.5	24.7	33.4	25.6
Washington	1,915	2,201	2,577	1,109	1,339	1,596	57.9	60.8	61.9	14.9	17.1	20.7	19.2
Oregon	1,194	1,392	1,588	676	810	931	56.6	58.2	58.6	16.6	14.1	19.8	14.9
California	10,726	14,221	18,094	6,379	8,784	11,251	59.5	65.9	62.2	32.6	27.2	37.7	28.1
Alaska	143	170	213	98	112	133	68.5	65.9	62.4	18.9	25.3	14.3	18.8
Hawaii	402	494	575	264	327	367	65.7	66.2	63.8	22.9	16.4	23.9	12.2

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[1] Does not include the Armed Forces abroad.

[2] Changes for 1960-70 are not strictly comparable with those for 1970-80 because the 1960 data relate to the decennial census date of April 1, the population projections relate to July 1, and the labor force projections are annual averages based on the Current Population Survey.

SOURCE: Population projections are from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, and are consistent with the projections in Current Population Reports, Series P-25, Nos. 286 and 326, Series II-B. All other data are from the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table E–8. Actual and Projected Employment for Persons 16 Years and Over, by Occupation Group, 1960 to 1975

Occupation group	Actual				Projected [1]		Number change (millions)[2]		Percent change [2]	
	1960		1965		1975					
	Number (thousands)	Percent distribution	Number (thousands)	Percent distribution	Number (millions)	Percent distribution [2]	1960–65	1965–75	1960–65	1965–75
Total employment [3]	65, 777	100. 0	71, 088	100. 0	87. 2	100. 0	5. 3	16. 1	8. 1	22. 7
Professional and technical workers	7, 474	11. 4	8, 883	12. 5	12. 9	14. 8	1. 4	4. 0	18. 9	45. 2
Managers, officials, and proprietors	7, 067	10. 7	7, 340	10. 3	9. 0	10. 4	. 3	1. 7	3. 9	23. 3
Clerical workers	9, 759	14. 8	11, 129	15. 7	14. 8	16. 9	1. 4	3. 6	14. 0	32. 5
Sales workers	4, 216	6. 4	4, 497	6. 3	5. 6	6. 4	. 3	1. 1	6. 7	25. 0
Craftsmen and foremen	8, 560	13. 0	9, 222	13. 0	11. 4	13. 0	. 7	2. 1	7. 7	23. 1
Operatives	11, 950	18. 2	13, 336	18. 8	14. 7	16. 9	1. 4	1. 4	11. 6	10. 5
Service workers	8, 031	12. 2	8, 936	12. 6	12. 0	13. 8	. 9	3. 1	11. 3	34. 4
Nonfarm laborers	3, 557	5. 4	3, 688	5. 2	3. 6	4. 1	. 1	–. 1	3. 7	[4] –2. 4
Farmers and farm laborers	5, 163	7. 8	4, 057	5. 7	3. 2	3. 6	–1. 1	–. 9	–21. 4	–21. 6

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[1] These projections of civilian employment assume 3 percent unemployment whereas the projections of total labor force shown in the preceding tables are consistent with 4 percent unemployment. The lower unemployment assumption implies a slightly larger labor force; e.g., the total labor force in 1975 at 3 percent unemployment would be about 92.6 million as compared with 92.2 million at 4 percent unemployment.

[2] Based on data in thousands.

[3] Represents total employment as covered by the Current Population Survey.

[4] Employment is projected at about the level of the past decade; however, because 1965 employment was unusually high, reflecting a sharp increase in manufacturing, the projected percent change from 1965 indicates an apparent decline.

Table E–9. Actual and Projected Employment by Industry Division, 1960 to 1975

[Numbers in thousands]

Industry division	Actual				Projected [1]		Number change		Percent change	
	1960		1965		1975					
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	1960–65	1965–75	1960–65	1965–75
Agriculture [2]	5, 723		4, 585		3, 745		–1, 138	–840	–19. 9	–18. 3
Total nonagricultural wage and salary workers [3]	54, 234	100. 0	60, 832	100. 0	76, 040	100. 0	6, 598	15, 208	12. 2	25. 0
Goods-producing industries	20, 393	37. 6	21, 880	36. 0	24, 530	32. 3	1, 487	2, 650	7. 3	12. 1
Mining	712	1. 3	632	1. 0	620	. 8	–80	–12	–11. 2	–1. 9
Contract construction	2, 885	5. 3	3, 186	5. 2	4, 190	5. 5	301	1, 004	10. 4	31. 5
Manufacturing	16, 796	31. 0	18, 062	29. 7	19, 720	25. 9	1, 266	1, 658	7. 5	9. 2
Durable goods	9, 459	17. 4	10, 406	17. 1	11, 480	15. 1	947	1, 074	10. 0	10. 3
Nondurable goods	7, 336	13. 5	7, 656	12. 6	8, 240	10. 8	320	584	4. 4	7. 6
Service-producing industries	33, 840	62. 4	38, 953	64. 0	51, 510	67. 7	5, 113	12, 557	15. 1	32. 2
Transportation and public utilities	4, 004	7. 4	4, 036	6. 6	4, 580	6. 0	32	544	. 8	13. 5
Transportation	2, 549	4. 7	2, 532	4. 2	2, 935	3. 9	–17	403	–. 7	15. 9
Communication	840	1. 5	881	1. 4	1, 020	1. 3	41	139	4. 9	15. 8
Electric, gas, and sanitary services	615	1. 1	623	1. 0	625	. 8	8	2	1. 3	. 3
Wholesale and retail trade	11, 391	21. 0	12, 716	20. 9	16, 115	21. 2	1, 325	3, 399	11. 6	26. 7
Wholesale	3, 004	5. 5	3, 312	5. 4	4, 135	5. 4	308	823	10. 3	24. 8
Retail	8, 388	15. 5	9, 404	15. 5	11, 980	15. 8	1, 016	2, 576	12. 1	27. 4
Finance, insurance, and real estate	2, 669	4. 9	3, 023	5. 0	3, 725	4. 9	354	702	13. 3	23. 2
Service and miscellaneous	7, 423	13. 7	9, 087	14. 9	12, 945	17. 0	1, 664	3, 858	22. 4	42. 5
Government	8, 353	15. 4	10, 091	16. 6	14, 145	18. 6	1, 738	4, 054	20. 8	40. 2
Federal [4]	2, 270	4. 2	2, 378	3. 9	2, 745	3. 6	108	367	4. 8	15. 4
State and local	6, 083	11. 2	7, 714	12. 7	11, 400	15. 0	1, 631	3, 686	26. 8	47. 8

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[1] Revised 1968. See also footnote 1, table E–8.

[2] Represents total employment for persons 14 years and over as covered by the Current Population Survey prior to the change in age limit introduced in 1967; includes wage and salary workers, the self-employed, and unpaid family workers.

[3] Represents wage and salary employment as covered by the monthly establishment survey; excludes the self-employed, unpaid family workers, and domestic workers in households. (These data are not affected by the change in the lower age limit introduced into the Current Population Survey in 1967.)

[4] Data relate to civilian employment only, excluding the Central Intelligence and National Security Agencies.

Table E–10. Revised Projected Educational Attainment of the Civilian Labor Force 25 Years and Over, by Sex and Age, 1975

[Numbers in thousands]

Sex and years of school completed	Total, 25 years and over	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
BOTH SEXES						
Total: Number	69,857	20,325	15,879	17,745	12,616	3,292
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 4 years high school	34.0	21.3	31.2	38.1	47.1	52.3
4 years high school or more	66.0	78.7	68.8	61.9	52.9	47.7
Elementary: Less than 5 years [1]	2.3	1.0	1.8	2.8	3.7	5.8
5 to 7 years	5.4	2.1	4.6	6.4	8.9	11.5
8 years	8.3	3.3	6.3	9.2	14.8	18.1
High school: 1 to 3 years	17.9	15.0	18.4	19.8	19.8	16.9
4 years	39.5	45.7	41.6	38.3	32.9	23.2
College: 1 to 3 years	11.1	13.3	11.1	10.1	9.2	10.2
4 years or more	15.4	19.7	16.1	13.4	10.8	14.3
Median years of school completed	12.4	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.1	11.6
MALE						
Total: Number	45,109	14,208	10,301	10,723	7,790	2,087
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 4 years high school	35.2	21.9	31.5	41.0	50.7	55.6
4 years high school or more	64.8	78.1	68.5	59.0	49.3	44.4
Elementary: Less than 5 years [1]	2.8	1.2	2.3	3.4	4.8	6.2
5 to 7 years	5.9	2.3	5.0	7.3	9.8	12.6
8 years	8.8	3.5	6.5	10.5	16.0	19.9
High school: 1 to 3 years	17.7	15.0	17.7	19.8	20.1	16.9
4 years	36.7	44.7	38.4	32.9	29.4	20.3
College: 1 to 3 years	11.3	13.6	11.5	10.1	9.1	9.7
4 years or more	16.8	19.8	18.6	16.0	10.8	14.4
Median years of school completed	12.4	12.6	12.5	12.3	11.9	11.0
FEMALE						
Total: Number	24,748	6,117	5,578	7,022	4,826	1,205
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 4 years high school	31.7	20.0	30.6	33.8	41.3	46.5
4 years high school or more	68.3	80.0	69.4	66.2	58.7	53.5
Elementary: Less than 5 years [1]	1.5	0.5	1.0	1.8	1.8	5.1
5 to 7 years	4.6	1.7	3.9	5.0	7.4	9.6
8 years	7.3	2.9	6.0	7.2	12.8	15.0
High school: 1 to 3 years	18.3	14.9	19.7	19.7	19.3	16.8
4 years	44.7	48.0	47.5	46.6	38.5	28.3
College: 1 to 3 years	10.7	12.6	10.4	10.2	9.4	11.0
4 years or more	12.9	19.5	11.5	9.5	10.8	14.2
Median years of school completed	12.4	12.6	12.4	12.3	12.2	12.1

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[1] Includes persons with no formal education.

SOURCE: Prepared by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, consistent with projections of the educational attainment of the population published by the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census in Current Population Reports, Series P–25, No. 390. These projections are based upon the educational attainment of the population and labor force as reported in the monthly Current Population Survey.

Table F–1. Enrollment Opportunities, First-Time Enrollments, and Federal Obligations for Work and Training Programs Administered by the Department of Labor, by Program, Fiscal Years 1963–69

[Thousands]

Program	Total	FY 1969	FY 1968	FY 1967	FY 1966	FY 1965	FY 1964	FY 1963
ENROLLMENT OPPORTUNITIES								
Total	4,025.8	889.5	823.8	808.4	808.8	510.2	125.8	59.2
Manpower Development and Training Act	1,376.0	177.3	229.9	270.9	281.1	231.8	125.8	59.2
Institutional training	847.0	97.9	123.6	126.0	163.0	167.1	112.5	56.9
On-the-job training	509.4	67.7	98.8	144.5	118.1	64.7	13.3	2.3
Part-time and other training	19.6	11.7	7.5	.4	....	....	....	....
Neighborhood Youth Corps	2,396.3	539.7	537.7	512.8	527.7	278.4	....	....
In school	665.6	100.6	135.0	139.0	188.8	102.2	....	....
Out of school	352.3	50.0	62.7	79.3	98.6	61.7	....	....
Summer	[1] 1,375.4	[1] 387.2	[1] 339.1	294.3	240.3	114.5	....	....
Work Training in Industry	3.0	1.9	.9	.2	....	....	....	....
Operation Mainstream	32.4	13.5	10.9	8.0	....	....	....	....
New Careers	13.0	5.9	2.7	4.4	....	....	....	....
Special Impact	[2] 6.5	[2] 1.3	1.2	4.0	....	....	....	....
Concentrated Employment Program [3]	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
JOBS (federally financed)	92.7	52.8	31.5	8.4	....	....	....	....
Work Incentive Program	108.9	99.0	9.9	....	....	....	....	....
FIRST-TIME ENROLLMENTS [4]								
Total	3,680.0	1,000.7	780.8	833.3	658.7	294.8	77.6	34.1
Manpower Development and Training Act	1,230.4	220.0	241.0	265.0	235.8	156.9	77.6	34.1
Institutional training	848.4	135.0	140.0	150.0	177.5	145.3	68.6	32.0
On-the-job training	382.0	85.0	101.0	115.0	58.3	11.6	9.0	2.1
Part-time and other training	(5)	(5)	(5)	....	....	....	....	....
Neighborhood Youth Corps	2,088.5	504.1	467.3	556.3	422.9	137.9	....	....
In school	584.9	84.3	118.3	166.8	160.8	54.7	....	....
Out of school	532.4	74.5	93.8	161.6	166.9	35.6	....	....
Summer	971.2	345.3	255.2	227.9	95.2	47.6	....	....
Work Training in Industry	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	....	....	....	....
Operation Mainstream	34.9	11.3	12.6	11.0	....	....	....	....
New Careers	9.1	3.8	4.3	1.0	....	....	....	....
Special Impact	5.3	2.7	2.6	....	....	....	....	....
Concentrated Employment Program	180.0	127.0	53.0	....	....	....	....	....
JOBS (federally financed)	51.2	51.2	....	....	....	....	....	....
Work Incentive Program	80.6	80.6	....	....	....	....	....	....
FEDERAL OBLIGATIONS								
Total	$3,854,897	$1,015,939	$802,173	$795,950	$628,407	$414,247	$142,111	$56,070
Manpower Development and Training Act	1,677,825	258,825	296,418	298,247	339,649	286,505	142,111	56,070
Institutional training	1,352,174	196,629	218,251	215,492	281,710	249,348	135,525	55,219
On-the-job training	316,192	56,429	74,571	82,659	57,939	37,157	6,586	851
Part-time and other training	9,459	5,767	3,596	96	....	....	....	....
Neighborhood Youth Corps	1,342,472	320,696	281,864	348,833	263,337	127,742	....	....
In school	(7)	49,048	58,908	67,448	(7)	(7)	....	....
Out of school	(7)	122,246	95,889	147,826	(7)	(7)	....	....
Summer	(7)	[8] 147,927	[8] 126,677	133,306	(7)	(7)	....	....
Work Training in Industry	(7)	1,475	390	253	(7)	(7)	....	....
Operation Mainstream	86,947	41,000	22,319	23,628	....	....	....	....
New Careers	41,590	18,460	7,557	15,573	....	....	....	....
Special Impact	10,138	1,100	2,038	7,000	....	....	....	....
Concentrated Employment Program	311,109	114,220	93,057	78,411	25,421	....	....	....
JOBS (federally financed)	274,999	160,821	89,920	24,258	....	....	....	....
Work Incentive Program	109,817	100,817	9,000	....	....	....	....	....

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[1] Includes enrollment opportunities made available by MDTA supplemental funds, 36,200 in fiscal 1969 and 49,100 in fiscal 1968.

[2] Estimated.

[3] Enrollment opportunities (slots) are not meaningful for CEP because the CEP approach utilizes a variety of program components—orientation, basic education, work experience, and other types of job training. An individual may be enrolled in one or in several components.

[4] These are new enrollees. Their number per fiscal year is generally larger than the number of enrollment opportunities (slots) programed, as a slot may be used by more than one individual during the year because of turnover or short-term training. If openings are unfilled, the number of first-time enrollments may be smaller than the number of enrollment opportunities.

[5] Included in data for institutional training.

[6] Included in data for the out-of-school component of NYC.

[7] Data are not available for NYC components prior to fiscal 1967.

[8] Includes obligations made available by MDTA supplemental funds, $7,446,000 in fiscal 1969 and $12,881,000 in fiscal 1968.

Table F–2. Enrollment Opportunities Authorized for Work and Training Programs Administered by the Department of Labor, by State and Program, Fiscal Year 1969 [1]

[Thousands]

State	MDTA training			Neighborhood Youth Corps			Operation Main-stream	New Careers	JOBS (federally financed)	Work Incentive Program
	Institu-tional	On the job	Part time and other	In school	Out of school	Summer				
United States	97.9	67.7	11.7	100.6	[2] 51.9	[3] 387.2	13.5	5.9	52.8	99.0
Alabama	1.7	2.1	....	2.8	1.5	6.6	.5	....	1.7	.8
Alaska	.6	.2	....	.4	.2	1.3	(4)	(4)	....	.4
Arizona	.6	.3	.1	1.2	.6	6.5	.3	....	.5	2.5
Arkansas	1.3	1.4	.1	1.7	.9	6.3	.5	.1	....	1.0
California	10.1	4.9	.1	9.0	4.2	32.1	.6	.4	8.7	12.0
Colorado	.7	.5	.1	.8	.5	2.4	.1	....	.1	2.6
Connecticut	.8	4.0	.6	.9	.5	2.9	.1	(4)	....	1.2
Delaware	.3	.4	....	.2	.1	.6	....	....	....	.3
District of Columbia	2.7	2.6	....	1.6	1.8	8.7	.1	.1	1.2	....
Florida	2.0	.7	....	2.4	1.5	6.0	.2	.1	2.0	2.6
Georgia	1.8	2.3	.3	3.6	1.1	8.6	.2	....	.7	1.4
Guam	.2	....	....	(4)	(4)	.3	....	....	....	.1
Hawaii	.4	....	.2	.2	.1	1.2	(4)	....	(4)	.3
Idaho	.4	.2	.1	.3	.1	.6	....	....	....	.5
Illinois	6.5	1.5	2.0	5.1	2.2	33.5	.4	.1	2.7	5.0
Indiana	1.6	1.7	.5	1.5	.9	4.8	.4	.1	.7	1.0
Iowa	1.0	1.2	.4	1.1	.4	2.9	.1	....	....	.7
Kansas	1.1	.6	.3	1.0	.5	1.8	.3	....	.1	.7
Kentucky	1.4	2.1	....	4.1	1.4	9.0	1.3	....	(4)	2.0
Louisiana	.9	1.4	.4	2.3	1.0	8.5	.1	....	.6	2.2
Maine	1.0	.3	....	.6	.2	1.2	.1	....	....	.4
Maryland	1.7	.9	.7	.6	.7	9.1	.2	....	1.4	2.7
Massachusetts	3.3	1.3	.3	2.0	1.0	5.1	.3	.2	1.0	3.0
Michigan	3.2	1.5	.2	2.7	1.4	9.5	.1	.1	6.2	3.0
Minnesota	2.0	1.1	....	1.9	.4	6.5	1.0	.4	.4	1.2
Mississippi	1.1	2.3	.1	1.7	1.8	6.5	.2	....	....	1.0
Missouri	2.2	.8	....	2.1	1.1	7.7	.4	(4)	1.9	1.8
Montana	.4	.5	....	.3	.1	1.8	.1	....	....	.4
Nebraska	1.1	.3	.1	.6	.2	2.7	.2	....	.1	.5
Nevada	.4	.1	....	.2	.1	.6	(4)	....	....	....
New Hampshire	.5	.3	....	.2	.1	.7	(4)	....	....	....
New Jersey	3.2	1.9	....	2.6	1.6	9.2	.5	.2	1.8	2.6
New Mexico	.5	.7	....	.7	.2	2.9	.1	....	....	.5
New York	6.6	3.0	....	7.5	4.8	56.5	.5	1.9	10.3	12.0
North Carolina	2.0	2.0	....	3.4	1.8	13.4	.2	.6	....	1.7
North Dakota	.5	.4	....	.3	.1	1.0	.1	....	....	.2
Ohio	4.6	2.1	.1	4.4	2.3	13.6	.2	.2	2.7	3.5
Oklahoma	2.3	.7	.1	2.5	.9	5.6	.5	....	.7	.5
Oregon	1.2	.5	.2	.8	.3	2.4	.2	....	.2	1.4
Pennsylvania	7.1	2.2	1.2	4.6	1.6	18.0	.3	.3	2.2	4.8
Puerto Rico	1.7	1.8	.1	1.9	2.2	4.1	....	.2	....	3.5
Rhode Island	.5	.1	....	.9	.2	1.4	.1	....	....	.6
South Carolina	1.2	3.2	.2	2.1	1.0	5.5	.2	.1	....	.3
South Dakota	.1	.3	.2	.4	.2	1.3	.3	(4)	....	.4
Tennessee	1.9	3.7	.2	2.4	1.3	7.0	.4	.1	.6	....
Texas	3.5	1.3	1.2	6.4	2.8	21.7	.5	.1	3.5	1.6
Utah	.4	.5	....	.5	.2	1.3	.1	....	....	2.1
Vermont	.5	.3	....	.2	.1	.9	.1	.1	....	.2
Virginia	2.3	1.4	.1	2.0	1.2	7.3	.5	.3	....	.8
Virgin Islands	....	....	.1	.1	.2	.1	....	....	....	(4)
Washington	1.9	1.1	1.0	1.2	.6	3.8	.1	.1	(4)	2.4
West Virginia	.6	1.3	....	1.1	1.0	8.6	.2	.2	....	7.4
Wisconsin	2.1	1.4	.4	1.3	.2	5.2	.5	....	.7	1.0
Wyoming	.2	.3	....	.1	.1	.5	(4)	....	....	.1

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[1] The Special Impact program and CEP are not included, Special Impact because it has been confined to only one State (New York, Bedford-Stuyvesant area), and CEP because enrollment opportunities are not a meaningful concept for that program (see footnote 3, table F–1).

[2] Includes enrollment opportunities for the Work-Training-in-Industry component. Also includes 131 enrollment opportunities for Saipan, not shown separately.

[3] Includes 36,200 enrollment opportunities made available by MDTA funds used to supplement the summer program.

[4] Less than 50.

Table F–3. Federal Obligations for Work and Training Pr
by State and Program, F

[Thousands]

State	MDTA training			Neighborhood Youth	
	Institutional	On the job	Part time and other	In school	Out of school
United States	$196,629	$56,429	$5,767	$49,048	[3] $123,721
Alabama	2,732	1,354	29	1,439	3,849
Alaska	1,152	264	....	280	708
Arizona	1,239	340	35	532	1,427
Arkansas	2,429	772	53	913	2,071
California	30,239	6,789	3	4,151	9,993
Colorado	1,677	680	46	374	1,090
Connecticut	1,037	2,148	1,546	445	1,145
Delaware	488	196	....	44	271
District of Col	2,784	2,728	....	1,029	3,776
Florida	3,384	527	....	1,190	3,914
Georgia	3,561	1,769	173	1,703	2,956
Guam	135	44	....	7	97
Hawaii	569	8	54	117	275
Idaho	926	137	79	127	90
Illinois	10,023	1,762	304	2,405	4,952
Indiana	3,248	1,812	332	761	2,421
Iowa	2,584	1,073	253	462	840
Kansas	1,864	417	45	379	813
Kentucky	3,197	1,726	....	1,881	3,425
Louisiana	2,814	1,046	191	1,229	2,527
Maine	1,188	254	....	293	529
Maryland	2,338	782	81	182	1,862
Massachusetts	5,934	1,227	410	682	2,083
Michigan	9,265	1,068	117	1,457	3,030
Minnesota	3,918	975	....	914	756
Mississippi	2,213	1,489	21	848	3,830
Missouri	4,274	1,135	36	1,071	2,758
Montana	944	299	4	119	300
Nebraska	1,975	196	6	180	471
Nevada	576	132	....	63	241
New Hampshire	742	213	7	96	292
New Jersey	7,542	1,205	....	1,301	4,067
New Mexico	886	319	....	405	605
New York	19,132	2,335	14	3,725	12,684
North Carolina	3,719	1,780	....	1,857	4,330
North Dakota	988	349	....	173	340
Ohio	8,317	2,362	77	1,703	4,828
Oklahoma	2,705	589	20	1,381	1,973
Oregon	2,156	442	50	420	680
Pennsylvania	10,797	2,263	174	2,199	4,734
Puerto Rico	2,891	1,383	37	867	4,578
Rhode Island	803	102	....	380	312
South Carolina	2,205	1,139	68	1,027	2,573
South Dakota	554	256	164	205	478
Tennessee	3,690	2,278	21	1,170	3,418
Texas	6,766	875	363	3,492	6,720
Utah	1,061	473	11	202	466
Vermont	486	220	11	110	280
Virginia	2,913	878	26	1,047	3,339
Virgin Islands	14	9	53	48	356
Washington	3,068	836	340	633	1,160
West Virginia	1,555	1,063	....	638	2,181
Wisconsin	4,418	1,640	512	624	575
Wyoming	514	271	....	66	148

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[1] The Special Impact program is not included because it has been confined to only one State (New York, Bedford-Stuyvesant area).

[2] CEP and JOBS are jointly financed from MDTA and Economic Opportunity Act funds. Funds shown here are not included in funds for other programs shown in this table.

Table F–4. Enrollments, Completions, and Posttraining Employment for Institutional and On-the-Job Training Programs Under the MDTA, Fiscal Years 1963–69

[Thousands]

Item	Total	FY 1969	FY 1968	FY 1967	FY 1966	FY 1965	FY 1964	FY 1963 [1]
TOTAL								
Enrollments	1,230.4	220.0	241.0	265.0	235.8	156.9	77.6	34.1
Completions	840.2	160.0	164.2	192.6	155.7	96.3	51.3	20.1
Posttraining employment	658.1	124.0	127.5	153.7	124.0	73.4	39.4	16.1
INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING								
Enrollments	848.4	135.0	140.0	150.0	177.5	145.3	68.6	32.0
Completions	566.7	95.0	91.0	109.0	117.7	88.8	46.0	19.2
Posttraining employment	422.3	71.0	64.5	80.0	89.8	66.9	34.8	15.3
ON-THE-JOB TRAINING								
Enrollments	382.0	85.0	101.0	115.0	58.3	11.6	9.0	2.1
Completions	273.5	65.0	73.2	83.6	38.0	7.5	5.3	.9
Posttraining employment	235.8	53.0	63.0	73.7	34.2	6.5	4.6	.8

[1] Program became operational August 1962.

NOTE: Completions do not include dropouts. Posttraining employment includes persons employed at the time of the most recent followup. (There are three followups, with the third occurring 1 year after completion of training.)

Table F–5. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in Institutional Training Programs Under the MDTA, Fiscal Years 1963–69

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	Total	Fiscal year of enrollment						
		1969	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963[1]
Total: Number (thousands)	848.4	135.0	140.0	150.0	177.5	145.3	68.6	32.0
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sex:								
Male	58.0	55.6	55.4	56.8	58.3	60.9	59.7	63.8
Female	42.0	44.4	44.6	43.2	41.7	39.1	40.3	36.2
Age:								
Under 19 years	15.0	12.5	14.9	16.4	15.9	18.3	10.6	6.3
19 to 21 years	23.5	25.0	23.6	23.6	22.2	24.3	24.7	19.1
22 to 34 years	35.4	38.2	35.5	34.3	35.3	32.4	36.4	43.9
35 to 44 years	15.4	14.0	15.2	14.7	15.6	14.9	17.5	20.3
45 years and over	10.7	10.3	10.8	11.0	11.0	10.1	10.8	10.4
Race:								
White	61.3	55.9	50.8	59.1	62.5	67.7	69.9	76.5
Negro	35.9	39.7	45.4	38.0	35.2	30.1	28.3	21.4
Other	2.8	4.4	3.8	2.9	2.3	2.2	1.8	2.1
Family status:								
Head of family or household	54.1	56.5	54.6	53.6	53.5	51.8	53.3	62.1
Other	45.9	43.5	45.4	46.4	46.5	48.2	46.7	37.9
Years of school completed:								
Under 8 years	7.5	9.0	9.2	7.5	6.7	8.1	5.7	3.1
8 years	9.8	9.8	10.0	10.7	9.6	10.2	8.4	7.6
9 to 11 years	36.9	38.8	40.6	38.9	35.7	34.1	33.3	30.0
12 years	40.1	37.9	34.7	38.0	42.0	41.8	45.2	50.4
Over 12 years	5.7	4.5	5.5	4.9	6.0	5.8	7.4	8.9
Years of gainful employment:								
Under 3 years	41.1	45.4	45.3	43.1	39.1	42.8	32.5	22.7
3 to 9 years	35.5	33.5	32.8	34.4	37.0	33.7	41.3	45.6
10 years or more	23.4	21.1	21.9	22.5	23.9	23.5	26.2	31.7
Number of dependents:								
0	47.1	49.6	48.4	49.3	47.5	44.6	44.6	37.3
1 person	15.2	14.7	14.5	14.4	15.4	15.1	16.8	18.2
2 persons	13.0	12.3	12.4	12.1	12.5	14.1	14.4	16.8
3 persons	9.5	8.9	9.2	8.8	9.4	10.4	10.2	12.4
4 persons	6.2	5.8	6.0	6.0	6.2	6.4	6.2	7.3
5 persons and over	9.0	8.7	9.5	9.4	9.0	9.4	7.8	8.0
Wage earner status:								
Primary	66.2	74.3	72.2	68.7	65.5	56.5	59.3	68.0
Other	33.8	25.7	27.8	31.3	34.5	43.5	40.7	32.0
Eligible for allowance:								
Yes	75.6	80.1	82.1	82.0	78.6	67.3	57.7	66.9
No	24.4	19.9	17.9	18.0	21.4	32.7	42.3	33.1
Unemployment insurance claimant:								
Yes	13.4	7.3	8.8	10.0	13.2	16.5	23.0	31.5
No	86.6	92.7	91.2	90.0	86.8	83.5	77.0	68.5
Public assistance recipient:								
Yes	11.5	13.4	12.6	12.1	11.2	10.5	9.7	8.1
No	88.5	86.6	87.4	87.9	88.8	89.5	90.3	91.9
Prior employment status:								
Unemployed	83.5	79.6	79.7	80.3	82.8	87.8	90.5	92.1
Family farmworker	1.1	.4	.6	.7	1.0	2.3	1.7	1.2
Reentrant to labor force	2.7	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.5	2.6	-------	-------
Underemployed	12.7	16.9	16.5	15.8	12.7	7.3	7.8	6.7
Duration of unemployment:								
Under 5 weeks	32.7	32.3	31.0	35.9	35.5	32.9	28.5	24.0
5 to 14 weeks	23.7	24.6	24.1	23.6	22.9	23.2	23.6	26.2
15 to 26 weeks	13.9	14.4	15.5	13.5	12.6	13.1	14.1	17.6
27 to 52 weeks	11.4	15.9	11.5	9.6	10.2	10.6	12.1	13.1
Over 52 weeks	18.3	12.8	17.9	17.4	18.8	20.2	21.7	19.1
Prior military service:								
Veteran	21.5	17.2	17.5	20.5	25.1	27.6	16.3	22.5
Rejectee	4.1	5.3	5.4	5.8	4.6	3.0	.1	.1
Other nonveteran	74.4	77.5	77.1	73.7	70.3	69.4	83.6	77.4
Handicapped:								
Yes	8.7	10.6	9.3	10.0	8.4	7.4	6.7	7.4
No	91.3	89.4	90.7	90.0	91.6	92.6	93.3	92.6

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[1] Program became operational August 1962.

Table F–6. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in Institutional Training Programs Under the MDTA, by State, Fiscal Year 1969

State	Number of enrollees (thousands)	Percent of total							
		Male	White	Age			Years of school completed		
				Under 22 years	22 to 44 years	45 years and over	8 years or less	9 to 11 years	12 years or more
United States	135.0	55.6	55.9	37.5	52.2	10.3	18.8	38.8	42.4
Alabama	2.7	49.0	47.9	36.2	53.5	10.3	14.3	37.9	47.8
Alaska	.5	50.3	41.9	33.5	61.1	5.4	27.3	24.8	47.8
Arizona	1.6	51.1	64.2	32.4	58.6	9.0	33.9	36.3	29.8
Arkansas	.9	49.7	76.4	35.4	46.9	17.7	23.7	25.5	50.7
California	13.5	70.9	52.8	31.7	58.7	9.5	18.0	44.6	37.4
Colorado	1.8	52.8	83.8	33.8	59.3	6.9	15.8	40.9	43.2
Connecticut	3.3	57.2	61.6	38.3	51.7	9.9	39.3	35.2	25.5
Delaware	.3	53.3	46.2	37.6	49.2	13.2	19.3	40.1	40.6
District of Columbia	1.0	41.7	6.9	30.6	60.7	8.6	14.4	37.2	48.4
Florida	2.6	50.0	48.5	34.5	52.6	12.9	13.5	39.8	46.7
Georgia	2.6	41.3	48.5	36.8	53.7	9.5	13.6	33.3	53.0
Guam	.1	16.0	3.0	98.9	1.1	--------	--------	10.0	90.0
Hawaii	.6	43.9	17.3	38.4	54.6	7.0	16.9	39.9	43.2
Idaho	.4	38.2	85.6	23.2	63.0	13.8	17.2	36.3	46.5
Illinois	5.5	38.2	49.8	42.8	46.8	10.5	11.3	37.2	51.5
Indiana	3.4	42.9	46.5	37.3	53.4	9.3	18.3	47.0	34.7
Iowa	1.2	62.5	80.7	38.2	50.2	11.7	19.3	40.1	40.6
Kansas	2.2	47.9	64.9	30.0	56.2	13.8	14.2	37.4	48.4
Kentucky	3.3	60.8	63.5	49.6	45.6	4.8	14.8	38.6	46.7
Louisiana	2.2	74.2	35.1	42.7	48.1	9.1	23.3	34.6	42.2
Maine	1.0	29.8	97.0	41.1	42.9	16.0	23.0	36.1	40.9
Maryland	2.2	30.9	25.5	41.8	49.6	8.6	14.2	48.1	37.6
Massachusetts	4.5	48.9	77.2	33.3	49.5	17.2	25.3	37.4	37.3
Michigan	6.0	42.2	41.5	36.1	53.2	10.8	10.2	36.5	53.3
Minnesota	2.0	60.3	82.0	42.0	45.8	12.1	10.8	39.8	49.3
Mississippi	1.6	73.4	35.1	37.3	48.3	14.4	40.0	29.8	30.1
Missouri	3.0	57.6	61.3	32.0	55.5	12.5	21.9	38.8	39.4
Montana	.5	53.6	61.5	31.4	58.9	9.8	27.4	41.0	31.7
Nebraska	1.6	58.4	74.6	33.6	52.6	13.8	12.6	38.6	48.8
Nevada	.4	54.2	70.2	32.1	56.7	11.2	2.6	25.4	72.0
New Hampshire	.7	56.7	98.5	40.7	48.0	11.3	14.9	28.8	56.3
New Jersey	10.6	58.6	35.2	34.4	55.4	10.2	20.9	48.5	30.6
New Mexico	.8	32.0	75.7	49.7	46.1	4.2	5.1	28.2	66.7
New York	9.5	57.8	43.1	53.6	39.8	6.6	13.5	56.6	29.9
North Carolina	2.0	61.3	40.3	39.0	47.9	13.2	19.2	26.3	54.6
North Dakota	.5	69.9	79.3	36.3	51.9	11.8	32.4	32.2	35.4
Ohio	5.5	61.0	52.9	50.5	44.0	5.5	11.6	43.3	45.1
Oklahoma	1.5	69.1	58.9	25.1	62.9	12.0	17.5	39.9	42.6
Oregon	1.7	43.6	86.8	25.6	57.2	17.3	9.3	29.7	61.1
Pennsylvania	6.0	61.7	63.2	37.4	52.1	10.5	10.8	36.1	53.0
Puerto Rico	2.0	76.9	71.2	41.4	55.2	3.5	27.5	26.1	46.4
Rhode Island	.9	65.1	79.2	38.1	53.9	8.0	24.2	35.5	40.4
South Carolina	1.8	52.9	47.7	33.7	54.7	11.6	24.9	28.8	46.2
South Dakota	.4	39.5	84.8	40.6	46.8	12.6	15.6	29.6	54.9
Tennessee	2.5	62.3	61.6	42.6	49.8	7.7	14.5	27.8	57.7
Texas	7.0	51.7	56.0	28.8	60.2	11.0	29.4	36.1	34.4
Utah	.5	43.2	94.6	28.0	55.3	16.7	4.6	25.4	70.0
Vermont	.4	53.4	100.0	35.3	45.7	19.0	43.1	24.5	32.2
Virginia	2.5	49.4	64.7	42.1	47.9	10.0	22.5	25.1	52.4
Virgin Islands	.1	34.1	6.2	46.1	50.8	3.2	25.7	18.2	56.2
Washington	2.0	52.2	82.6	25.8	60.0	14.2	11.2	28.6	60.3
West Virginia	.7	53.6	91.2	27.8	57.7	14.5	14.9	30.3	54.9
Wisconsin	2.5	58.8	59.4	37.1	53.0	9.9	16.6	44.0	39.5
Wyoming	.4	58.7	89.4	26.5	53.5	20.0	11.5	32.6	55.8

Table F–7. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in On-the-Job Training Programs Under the MDTA, Fiscal Years 1963–69

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	Total	Fiscal year of enrollment						
		1969	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963 [1]
Total: Number (thousands)	382.0	85.0	101.0	115.0	58.3	11.6	9.0	2.1
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sex:								
Male	68.1	65.1	68.4	67.0	72.0	71.9	70.9	80.8
Female	31.9	34.9	31.6	33.0	28.0	28.1	29.1	19.2
Age:								
Under 19 years	12.7	11.1	12.2	12.4	16.5	15.2	7.8	8.2
19 to 21 years	23.4	25.0	23.6	22.4	23.1	23.3	19.8	22.9
22 to 34 years	40.5	40.6	40.4	41.6	38.1	38.6	47.1	44.1
35 to 44 years	13.3	13.2	13.2	13.6	12.7	12.4	16.5	15.0
45 years and over	10.1	10.1	10.6	10.0	9.6	10.5	8.8	9.8
Race:								
White	69.1	61.1	64.2	73.1	76.2	77.1	76.2	83.0
Negro	28.3	35.4	33.1	24.5	22.1	20.9	22.9	13.1
Other	2.6	3.5	2.7	2.4	1.7	2.0	.9	3.9
Family status:								
Head of family or household	51.9	53.4	53.9	50.2	49.5	48.1	58.8	56.1
Other	48.1	46.6	46.1	49.8	50.5	51.9	41.2	43.9
Years of school completed:								
Under 8 years	6.5	7.5	6.9	5.9	6.2	5.6	5.4	6.4
8 years	8.5	9.0	8.6	8.2	8.0	8.4	8.8	9.2
9 to 11 years	32.2	35.0	34.2	30.7	28.7	30.6	29.0	28.7
12 years	45.5	42.5	43.9	47.5	48.3	46.6	47.6	45.4
Over 12 years	7.3	6.0	6.4	7.7	8.8	8.8	9.2	10.3
Years of gainful employment:								
Under 3 years	42.3	45.3	42.1	41.5	42.2	40.7	28.1	34.4
3 to 9 years	34.6	32.9	34.4	35.6	34.6	34.7	39.9	38.1
10 years or more	23.1	21.8	23.5	22.9	23.2	24.6	32.0	27.5
Number of dependents:								
0	45.8	46.0	45.6	45.6	47.7	44.6	35.1	38.1
1 person	17.5	17.6	17.0	18.1	17.1	17.9	18.4	17.9
2 persons	13.6	13.5	13.9	13.5	13.1	13.3	15.8	16.3
3 persons	10.1	9.6	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.8	14.1	13.0
4 persons	6.1	6.1	6.2	6.0	5.8	6.4	9.1	7.4
5 persons and over	6.9	7.2	7.3	6.8	6.3	7.0	7.5	7.3
Wage earner status:								
Primary	66.7	67.7	71.1	65.5	62.3	56.5	70.4	64.8
Other	33.3	32.3	28.9	34.5	37.7	43.5	29.6	35.2
Eligible for allowance:								
Yes	19.3	18.7	24.5	16.2	16.9	19.3	24.6	16.6
No	80.7	81.3	75.5	83.8	83.1	80.7	75.4	83.[illegible]
Unemployment insurance claimant:								
Yes	5.9	4.6	5.9	5.7	5.6	11.3	18.3	9.4
No	94.1	95.4	94.1	94.3	94.4	88.7	81.7	90.6
Public assistance recipient:								
Yes	4.0	5.3	5.2	2.9	2.7	2.7	3.0	1.3
No	96.0	94.7	94.8	97.1	97.3	97.3	97.0	98.7
Prior employment status:								
Unemployed	65.2	72.4	66.7	60.2	62.8	66.3	67.3	65.1
Family farmworker	.4	.3	.3	.3	.6	.8	.1	.3
Reentrant to labor force	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.9	2.3	2.6	.3	1.7
Underemployed	31.2	24.0	29.7	35.6	34.3	30.3	32.3	32.9
Duration of unemployment:								
Under 5 weeks	42.8	40.3	41.3	44.8	45.3	42.1	41.6	45.9
5 to 14 weeks	22.8	23.6	23.1	22.8	21.3	23.0	24.7	20.1
15 to 26 weeks	11.5	11.7	12.5	11.2	10.0	11.1	14.1	9.8
27 to 52 weeks	9.0	13.0	8.6	7.5	7.5	7.9	7.6	8.3
Over 52 weeks	13.9	11.4	14.5	13.7	15.9	15.9	12.0	15.9
Prior military service:								
Veteran	26.6	22.7	24.9	27.1	32.5	31.6	31.5	29.2
Rejectee	4.4	5.2	4.6	4.6	3.7	3.3	1.4	1.6
Other nonveteran	69.0	72.1	70.5	68.3	63.8	65.1	67.1	69.2
Handicapped:								
Yes	5.1	5.8	5.7	4.6	4.4	5.1	3.7	2.9
No	94.9	94.2	94.3	95.4	95.6	94.9	96.3	97.1

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[1] Program became operational August 1962.

Table F–8. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in On-the-Job Training Programs Under the MDTA, by State, Fiscal Year 1969

State	Number of enrollees (thousands)	Percent of total							
		Male	White	Age			Years of school completed		
				Under 22 years	22 to 44 years	45 years and over	8 years or less	9 to 11 years	12 years or more
United States	85.0	65.1	61.1	36.1	53.8	10.1	16.5	35.0	48.5
Alabama	1.0	70.3	62.2	32.3	55.5	12.1	25.7	37.2	37.1
Alaska	(1)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Arizona	.7	73.9	65.5	34.7	56.4	8.9	15.7	29.3	55.0
Arkansas	1.6	54.2	79.3	33.6	59.0	7.4	16.9	34.0	49.1
California	9.8	73.6	60.2	38.2	54.1	7.7	14.5	35.2	50.3
Colorado	.7	61.8	85.0	32.1	61.4	6.5	14.7	39.9	45.4
Connecticut	2.0	64.0	61.7	42.9	51.4	5.7	15.8	35.2	49.0
Delaware	.5	50.9	67.4	34.9	49.1	16.0	18.9	44.0	37.1
District of Columbia	.8	79.1	42.0	35.6	59.8	4.6	4.9	24.6	70.5
Florida	1.4	82.3	66.0	35.0	53.8	11.2	14.0	38.7	47.3
Georgia	2.6	51.5	52.7	36.0	57.2	6.8	19.0	38.1	42.9
Guam	(1)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Hawaii	(1)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Idaho	.2	64.6	95.1	40.2	43.3	16.5	18.9	44.1	37.0
Illinois	3.0	71.2	47.4	40.1	51.4	8.5	12.4	43.9	43.7
Indiana	2.1	69.5	81.8	44.6	49.2	6.2	9.0	37.0	54.0
Iowa	.4	86.8	85.0	38.3	51.3	10.4	18.3	31.0	50.7
Kansas	.4	67.9	84.4	32.1	56.6	11.3	8.1	33.4	58.5
Kentucky	1.9	66.8	80.9	42.0	49.5	8.5	23.7	33.0	43.3
Louisiana	3.4	72.0	44.5	47.3	48.3	4.4	8.3	25.4	66.3
Maine	.7	85.4	97.2	35.5	52.9	11.6	15.5	26.9	57.6
Maryland	.9	67.5	43.6	44.4	47.4	8.2	25.9	38.5	35.6
Massachusetts	1.9	51.3	64.4	36.0	52.1	11.9	17.5	35.9	46.6
Michigan	3.0	63.5	48.3	36.0	55.2	8.8	15.2	39.7	45.1
Minnesota	1.7	59.4	77.9	33.8	52.4	13.8	12.2	33.3	54.5
Mississippi	1.8	80.3	65.6	30.8	57.4	11.8	22.4	32.1	45.5
Missouri	1.6	65.7	36.1	36.4	55.6	8.0	13.5	46.8	39.7
Montana	.3	78.4	75.0	22.0	63.0	15.0	20.1	29.7	50.2
Nebraska	.2	95.6	84.5	36.8	57.9	5.3	5.3	20.2	74.5
Nevada	.3	66.9	62.9	25.4	60.0	14.6	6.1	36.7	57.2
New Hampshire	.1	93.8	100.0	35.4	53.1	11.5	13.6	28.1	58.3
New Jersey	5.1	47.4	48.2	31.8	52.4	15.8	19.8	35.7	44.5
New Mexico	.5	35.1	34.2	24.5	69.1	6.4	36.6	32.3	31.1
New York	9.3	61.7	52.8	30.6	55.6	13.8	18.0	36.3	45.7
North Carolina	2.0	78.9	64.0	41.8	50.8	7.4	20.6	33.3	46.1
North Dakota	.2	87.8	94.1	43.6	52.6	3.8	23.4	32.5	44.1
Ohio	2.5	74.8	40.1	35.7	58.1	6.2	8.4	40.8	50.8
Oklahoma	.6	69.1	80.5	24.9	60.0	15.1	11.6	32.3	56.1
Oregon	.9	47.9	82.0	29.6	52.3	18.1	14.0	25.6	60.4
Pennsylvania	5.8	53.6	52.4	38.4	48.8	12.8	11.4	35.3	53.3
Puerto Rico	.8	37.4	69.8	57.4	39.7	2.9	12.2	26.2	61.6
Rhode Island	.2	66.3	84.7	31.4	61.1	7.5	24.3	32.2	43.5
South Carolina	1.8	52.3	66.1	38.9	52.9	8.2	24.7	40.5	34.8
South Dakota	.5	77.3	76.8	25.8	56.7	17.5	25.5	29.6	44.9
Tennessee	3.0	67.4	73.1	29.1	58.1	12.8	26.7	33.1	40.2
Texas	3.3	81.8	76.0	36.3	55.9	7.8	18.2	28.8	53.0
Utah	.2	92.1	95.3	39.6	41.5	18.9	7.3	40.2	52.5
Vermont	.2	80.0	100.0	36.1	51.1	12.8	17.2	22.2	60.6
Virginia	.7	74.3	63.7	31.9	57.0	11.1	28.5	35.5	36.0
Virgin Islands	.1	26.9	23.8	28.8	67.4	3.8	63.5	28.8	7.7
Washington	.5	54.7	88.9	39.7	45.3	15.0	12.7	28.6	58.7
West Virginia	.6	49.9	97.1	33.7	57.1	9.2	17.0	28.4	54.6
Wisconsin	1.2	62.9	87.3	39.8	48.6	11.6	9.2	24.4	66.4
Wyoming	0	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

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[1] Less than 50 trainees.

Table F–9. Characteristics of Youth Enrolled in Neighborhood Youth Corps Projects, by School Status, January 1965–August 1969

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	In school [1]					Out of school				
	September 1968–August 1969	September 1967–August 1968	September 1966–August 1967	September 1965–August 1966	January 1965–August 1965	September 1968–August 1969	September 1967–August 1968	September 1966–August 1967	September 1965–August 1966	January 1965–August 1965
Total: Number (thousands)	474.6	483.7	446.0	357.8	157.5	101.0	137.6	172.9	187.2	119.0
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sex:										
Male	53.4	54.2	54.8	54.8	63.4	46.0	49.1	51.6	57.0	60.2
Female	46.6	45.8	45.2	45.2	36.6	54.0	50.9	48.4	43.0	39.8
Age:										
Under 17 years	56.4	47.8	47.6	28.4	23.8	14.4	13.7	21.3	9.1	6.8
17 years	28.9	33.8	35.7	43.0	43.3	26.4	24.2	24.8	22.3	18.4
18 years	10.8	13.5	12.3	20.6	22.6	23.3	24.0	22.5	25.3	33.1
19 years	3.0	3.7	3.4	6.1	7.3	16.5	17.9	16.1	21.1	21.8
20 and 21 years	.9	1.2	1.0	1.9	3.0	16.3	18.8	15.4	22.2	19.9
22 years and over	---	---	---	---	---	3.1	1.5	---	---	---
Race:										
White	46.3	47.3	52.4	55.8	67.3	48.2	50.2	47.0	48.2	51.4
Negro	47.4	48.0	43.3	39.0	28.7	47.5	45.6	49.4	45.2	45.1
American Indian	2.9	2.6	2.5	3.5	2.0	2.4	2.3	2.1	4.0	1.6
Oriental	.7	.6	.6	1.0	.7	.4	.4	.4	1.3	.4
Other	2.6	1.5	1.2	.7	1.3	1.6	1.5	1.1	1.3	1.5
Years of school completed:										
6 years or less	1.0	1.0	.6	.8	.4	4.6	5.0	5.4	5.6	3.2
7 years	4.3	2.9	1.7	1.5	.9	6.2	6.6	6.5	5.9	4.2
8 years	14.9	11.2	7.6	6.3	3.7	16.0	16.0	15.3	13.4	11.0
9 years	26.3	23.4	20.2	17.8	12.4	24.5	23.3	22.0	19.3	15.6
10 years	29.5	32.5	35.3	34.9	30.6	26.0	24.2	23.9	21.0	17.0
11 years	22.8	27.7	33.0	35.8	38.1	18.5	18.1	17.5	15.6	11.0
12 years [2]	1.2	1.4	1.5	2.9	13.9	4.2	6.8	9.4	19.2	38.0
Marital status:										
Single	99.4	99.3	99.3	98.8	98.9	82.8	83.5	85.3	88.8	91.6
Married, spouse present	.4	.5	.5	.9	1.0	11.8	11.9	10.7	8.6	6.9
Widowed, divorced, separated	.1	.2	.2	.3	.1	5.4	4.6	4.0	2.6	1.5
Estimated annual family income:										
Below $1,000	---	.1	5.9	10.4	(3)	---	.3	7.4	17.8	(3)
$1,000–$1,999	48.2	62.8	28.9	24.6	(3)	62.6	49.8	40.6	27.0	(3)
$2,000–$2,999	15.5	13.9	25.8	28.3	(3)	4.3	19.0	23.8	25.0	(3)
$3,000–$3,999	17.5	11.8	21.4	20.2	(3)	4.2	13.5	16.0	16.7	(3)
$4,000–$4,999	10.8	5.8	11.9	11.2	(3)	12.0	9.3	8.1	8.8	(3)
$5,000 and over	8.0	5.5	6.1	5.3	(3)	16.9	8.1	4.2	4.7	(3)
Number of persons in family:										
1 person	.7	.7	.8	.8	(3)	5.4	4.8	4.0	3.4	(3)
2 persons	3.1	3.1	3.4	3.9	(3)	9.0	8.5	7.5	7.3	(3)
3 persons	7.2	7.3	8.0	9.2	(3)	11.8	12.1	11.3	11.7	(3)
4 persons	11.4	11.6	11.9	12.8	(3)	11.4	11.9	12.0	13.0	(3)
5 persons	13.9	14.1	14.0	14.5	(3)	11.7	11.8	12.3	12.9	(3)
6 persons	14.1	14.1	13.6	13.6	(3)	10.7	11.0	11.3	11.6	(3)
7 persons	13.0	12.7	12.5	12.0	(3)	9.7	9.8	10.8	10.3	(3)
8 persons and over	36.7	36.4	35.8	33.2	(3)	30.3	30.3	31.4	29.8	(3)
Head of household:										
Father	54.8	56.4	57.4	58.9	(3)	35.7	38.9	42.0	45.6	(3)
Mother	36.2	32.9	32.5	30.4	(3)	32.1	28.2	28.9	28.3	(3)
Enrollee	.3	.5	.4	.7	(3)	10.6	10.6	8.6	7.8	(3)
Other	8.7	10.1	9.7	10.0	(3)	21.5	22.3	20.5	18.3	(3)
Reason for leaving school:										
Academic	---	---	---	---	---	90.5	82.4	[4] 15.3	[4] 19.1	(3)
Economic	---	---	---	---	---	9.5	15.6	26.1	28.7	(3)
Discipline	---	---	---	---	---	---	.4	10.3	13.6	(3)
Health	---	---	---	---	---	---	.2	7.4	7.6	(3)
Other [5]	---	---	---	---	---	---	1.4	40.9	31.0	(3)
Months since leaving school:										
1 to 3 months	---	---	---	---	---	11.7	12.8	9.4	12.4	(3)
4 to 6 months	---	---	---	---	---	15.2	12.9	12.4	13.5	(3)
7 to 12 months	---	---	---	---	---	25.1	24.8	25.3	24.7	(3)
13 to 24 months	---	---	---	---	---	23.9	24.7	25.2	24.1	(3)
25 to 36 months	---	---	---	---	---	6.0	6.1	14.3	13.6	(3)
More than 36 months	---	---	---	---	---	18.1	18.6	13.4	11.7	(3)
Draft classification: [6]										
1A (eligible)	---	---	---	---	---	38.2	40.6	39.8	38.6	45.2
1Y (acceptable in time of war or national emergency)	---	---	---	---	---	23.2	23.3	31.8	27.8	18.3
4F (not acceptable)	---	---	---	---	---	15.9	16.1	20.9	17.5	10.7
Other (includes veterans)	---	---	---	---	---	22.8	20.0	7.4	16.1	25.8

Footnotes at end of table.

Table F–9. Characteristics of Youth Enrolled in Neighborhood Youth Corps Projects, by School Status, January 1965–August 1969—Continued

Characteristic	In school[1]					Out of school				
	September 1968–August 1969	September 1967–August 1968	September 1966–August 1967	September 1965–August 1966	January 1965–August 1965	September 1968–August 1969	September 1967–August 1968	September 1966–August 1967	September 1965–August 1966	January 1965–August 1965
Percent living in public housing	17.5	16.5	14.4	11.8	(3)	17.2	14.9	14.0	14.2	(3)
Percent with family on public assistance	30.3	28.2	27.3	26.0	(3)	32.0	28.1	26.4	27.5	(3)
Percent contributing to family support before N YC	37.4	37.9	37.3	37.5	18.7	59.6	59.0	56.7	52.0	32.7
Percent who ever had a paying job	36.8	38.3	43.8	41.5	33.0	66.5	66.6	65.3	61.9	53.3
Hours worked per week on last paying job:										
1 to 15 hours	29.0	35.1	32.9	36.7	(3)	9.2	12.1	10.6	11.1	8.3
16 to 40 hours	66.2	59.0	59.4	53.2	(3)	78.3	74.2	70.5	69.4	68.7
More than 40 hours	4.8	5.8	7.7	10.1	(3)	12.5	13.7	18.9	19.5	23.0

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[1] Includes 1,114,000 youth enrolled in summer projects.

[2] Not necessarily high school graduates.

[3] Not available.

[4] The data on reasons for leaving school are not precisely comparable with later years; in particular, the bulk of trainees reported in the "other" category should have been reported in the "academic" group.

[5] Includes personal reasons, pregnancy, marriage, parental influence, poor relationships with fellow students, etc.

[6] Based only on persons reporting a draft classification.

Table F–10. Characteristics of Persons Enrolled in Operation Mainstream and New Careers Projects, Fiscal Year 1969

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	Operation Mainstream	New Careers
Total: Number (thousands)	11.3	3.8
Percent	[1] 100.0	[2] 100.0
Sex:		
Male	82.2	29.9
Female	17.8	70.1
Age: Median years	50.2	30.7
Percent	100.0	100.0
Under 22 years	1.9	8.4
22 to 34 years	25.8	59.5
35 to 44 years	14.5	19.6
45 to 54 years	13.9	10.2
55 to 64 years	20.8	2.2
65 years and over	23.1	----------
Race:		
White	67.5	33.0
Negro	20.8	61.1
American Indian	8.7	2.7
Oriental	.6	.8
Other	2.4	2.3
Years of school completed: Median	8.6	12.0
Percent	100.0	100.0
6 years or less	27.0	1.9
7 years	8.3	1.5
8 years	24.6	6.7
9 years	8.1	8.5
10 years	9.1	14.4
11 years	6.8	17.3
12 years or more	16.1	49.7
Marital status:		
Single	19.5	28.7
Married, spouse present	61.6	31.2
Widowed, divorced, separated	18.9	40.1
Estimated annual family income: Median	$4,244	$4,418
Percent	100.0	100.0
Below $1,000	----------	----------
$1,000-$1,999	31.4	21.7
$2,000-$2,999	3.3	2.1
$3,000-$3,999	1.4	1.7
$4,000-$4,999	57.1	58.5
$5,000 and over	6.8	15.9
Number of persons in family: Median	3	4
Percent	100.0	100.0
1 person	15.1	11.5
2 persons	24.2	13.5
Number of persons in family: Percent—Continued		
3 persons	14.3	16.3
4 persons	12.4	18.1
5 persons	9.6	13.1
6 persons	7.1	10.5
7 persons	5.0	6.8
8 persons and over	12.4	10.1
Number of persons in household: Median	3	4
Percent	100.0	100.0
1 person	17.4	11.3
2 persons	28.1	14.0
3 persons	14.3	17.1
4 persons	11.4	17.5
5 persons	8.5	13.5
6 persons	6.1	10.1
7 persons	4.5	7.0
8 persons and over	9.6	9.5
Head of household:		
Enrollee	65.9	60.6
Father	19.9	14.8
Mother	3.6	9.0
Other	10.6	15.5
Draft classification: [3]		
1A (eligible)	2.9	4.8
1Y (acceptable in time of war or national emergency)	8.9	10.1
4F (not acceptable)	20.3	14.4
Other (includes veterans)	68.0	70.7
Percent with children	37.4	64.2
Percent living in public housing	8.8	18.3
Percent with family on public assistance	17.4	35.0
Percent contributing to family support before enrollment	84.0	68.8
Percent who ever had a paying job	91.9	93.1
Hours worked per week on last paying job:		
1 to 15 hours	5.2	5.0
16 to 40 hours	81.1	87.2
More than 40 hours	13.7	7.9
Hourly earnings on last job:		
Less than $0.50	1.0	.8
$0.50 to $1.00	13.0	10.5
$1.01 to $1.25	11.9	11.3
$1.26 to $1.50	14.4	15.3
$1.51 and over	59.7	62.2

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[1] Based on 10,479 enrollee records received during fiscal 1969. Enrollees in CEP projects are not included.

[2] Based on 2,148 enrollee records received during fiscal 1969. Enrollees in CEP projects are not included.

[3] Based only on persons reporting a draft classification.

Table F-11. Characteristics of Persons Enrolled in the Concentrated Employment Program, Fiscal Years 1968–69

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	Fiscal year of enrollment	
	1969	1968
Total: Number (thousands)	127.0	53.0
Percent	[1] 100	[2] 100
Sex:		
Male	58	48
Female	42	52
Age:		
Under 22 years	37	36
22 to 44 years	52	55
45 years and over	11	9
Race:		
White	28	15
Negro	65	81
Other	7	4
Ethnic group:		
Mexican American	7	8
Puerto Rican	5	4
Years of school completed:		
8 years or less	26	23
9 to 11 years	44	55
12 years and over	30	22
Duration of unemployment:		
Under 15 weeks	60	51
15 weeks and over	40	49
Head of family or household	60	(3)
Public welfare recipient	13	19
Poverty status:		
Below poverty line	85	92
Above poverty line	15	8

[1] Based on reports received for 101,000 enrollees.

[2] Based on 74,000 persons interviewed for CEP projects, of whom 53,000 were enrolled.

[3] Not available.

Table F–12. Enrollments and Federal Obligations for the Concentrated Employment Program, by State and Area, Fiscal Years 1966–69

[Thousands]

State and area	Total enroll-ments, FY 1966–69	Federal obligations FY 1966–69	Federal obligations FY 1969
Total	180,073	$311,109	$114,220
Alabama	2,601	7,382	1,808
Birmingham	1,921	5,295	1,808
Huntsville	680	2,087	....
Arizona	3,853	8,853	5,209
Arizona—rural	493	2,000	1,978
Phoenix	3,360	6,853	3,231
Arkansas	1,124	2,154	75
Arkansas—rural	1,124	2,154	75
California	13,251	34,533	14,685
Fresno	1,324	2,087	2,065
Los Angeles	5,726	13,271	4,920
Oakland	2,665	8,742	4,000
Richmond	484	2,051	....
San Francisco	3,052	8,382	3,700
Colorado	1,259	2,247	....
Denver	1,259	2,247	....
Connecticut	2,421	4,166	2,066
Bridgeport	952	2,079	2,066
Hartford	1,469	2,087	....
District of Columbia	13,384	13,100	6,762
Florida	3,386	6,515	4,390
Dade County	1,119	2,186	2,165
Jacksonville	841	2,242	2,225
Tampa	1,426	2,087	....
Georgia	4,579	7,936	2,765
Atlanta	4,110	6,012	862
Gainesville	469	1,924	1,903
Hawaii	1,016	2,347	....
Honolulu	1,016	2,347	....
Illinois	5,710	11,118	3,468
Chicago	5,558	9,935	2,294
East St. Louis	152	1,183	1,174
Indiana	2,859	2,341	....
Gary	2,859	2,341	....
Iowa	929	2,083	....
Des Moines	929	2,083	....
Kentucky	3,170	9,934	5,412
Eastern Kentucky—rural	3,170	9,934	5,412
Louisiana	5,313	8,057	3,519
New Orleans	5,313	8,057	3,519
Maine	535	2,462	....
Portland	535	2,462	....
Maryland	6,273	7,231	2,358
Baltimore	6,273	7,231	2,358
Massachusetts	7,656	16,977	9,969
Boston	5,356	10,366	5,750
Lowell	454	2,087	2,069
New Bedford	732	2,083	2,065
Springfield	1,114	2,441	84
Michigan	4,916	10,541	3,401
Detroit	2,401	7,289	1,933
Northern Michigan	2,515	3,252	1,468
Minnesota	2,197	5,834	1,565
Duluth	543	2,247	....
Minneapolis	489	1,587	1,565
Minnesota—rural	1,165	2,000	....
Mississippi	5,293	7,327	4,000
Mississippi Delta	5,293	7,327	4,000

State and area	Total enroll-ments, FY 1966–69	Federal obligations FY 1966–69	Federal obligations FY 1969
Missouri	10,599	$11,752	$2,500
Kansas City	1,758	2,347	....
Missouri—rural	1,973	2,000	....
St. Louis	6,868	7,405	2,500
Montana	685	2,108	114
Montana—rural	685	2,108	114
Nebraska	1,041	2,298	2,285
Omaha	1,041	2,298	2,285
Nevada	1,082	2,087	....
Las Vegas	1,082	2,087	....
New Hampshire	608	2,147	....
Manchester	608	2,147	....
New Jersey	11,736	12,405	3,734
Hoboken	1,894	2,073	....
Newark	6,990	8,146	3,734
Trenton	2,852	2,186	....
New Mexico	2,182	4,741	2,472
Albuquerque	1,386	2,707	460
Santa Fe-New Mexico—rural	796	2,034	2,012
New York	8,921	12,264	2,700
Buffalo	3,807	2,337	....
New York	3,590	7,535	2,700
Rochester	1,524	2,392	....
North Carolina	3,695	6,031	3,907
Charlotte	1,257	2,087	....
Winston-Salem	785	2,000	1,985
North Carolina—rural	1,653	1,944	1,922
Ohio	9,576	17,777	7,810
Cincinnati	520	2,314	2,292
Cleveland	6,575	9,503	3,791
Columbus	1,140	2,185	....
Dayton	1,341	2,026	....
Toledo	....	1,749	1,727
Oklahoma	942	2,292	45
Tulsa	942	2,292	45
Oregon	1,348	2,299	....
Portland	1,348	2,299	....
Pennsylvania	9,210	15,148	6,215
Philadelphia	5,729	8,293	3,400
Pittsburgh	3,481	5,540	1,508
Wilkes-Barre	....	1,315	1,307
Rhode Island	798	2,087	....
Providence	798	2,087	....
South Carolina	1,204	2,000	....
South Carolina—rural	1,204	2,000	....
Tennessee	3,362	6,434	....
Chattanooga	1,289	2,087	....
Nashville	979	2,347	....
Tennessee—rural	1,094	2,000	....
Texas	12,914	24,769	10,671
Eagle Pass	525	2,087	2,065
Houston	5,663	9,676	4,546
San Antonio	4,911	8,572	4,060
Texarkana	1,003	2,347	....
Waco	812	2,087	....
Virginia	1,085	2,327	....
Norfolk	1,085	2,327	....
Washington	2,683	2,347	....
Seattle	2,683	2,347	....
Wisconsin	4,677	4,662	315
Milwaukee	3,350	2,662	315
Wisconsin—rural	1,327	2,000	....

Table F–13. Characteristics of Persons Hired Through the Federally Financed JOBS Program, Fiscal Year 1969

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	Trainees
Total: Number (thousands)	51.2
Percent	[1] 100
Sex:	
Male	71
Female	29
Age: Average years	25.1
Percent	100
Under 19 years	17
19 to 21 years	31
22 to 44 years	48
45 years and over	4
Race:	
White	13
Negro	78
Other	10
Years of school completed: Average	10.3
Percent	100
Years of school completed: Percent—continued	
Under 8 years	7
8 years	7
9 to 11 years	53
12 years	32
Number of persons in family: Average	3.7
Percent	100
1 person	25
2 to 4 persons	45
5 to 7 persons	22
8 persons and over	8
Public assistance recipient	10
Weeks of unemployment previous year: Average	22.1
Percent	100
Under 5 weeks	22
5 to 14 weeks	20
15 to 26 weeks	22
27 to 52 weeks	36

[1] Based on 24,700 enrollee records.

Table F–14. Characteristics of Persons Enrolled in the Work Incentive Program, Fiscal Year 1969

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	Enrollees
Total: Number (thousands)	80.6
Percent	100
Sex:	
Male	40
Female	60
Age:	
Under 22 years	16
22 to 44 years	74
45 years and over	10
Race:	
White	56
Negro	40
Other	4
Years of school completed:	
8 years or less	31
9 to 11 years	41
12 years and over	28
Head of household	91
Disadvantaged	88
Below poverty level	89
Spanish surname	18

Table F–15. Selected Employment Service Activities, Fiscal Years 1968–69

[Thousands]

State	Total nonfarm placements			Short-term nonfarm placements			Nonfarm job openings		New applications			Initial counseling interviews		
	FY 1969		FY 1968, all applicants	FY 1969		FY 1968, all applicants	FY 1969	FY 1968	FY 1969		FY 1968, all applicants	FY 1969		FY 1968, all applicants
	All applicants	Disadvantaged		All applicants	Disadvantaged				All applicants	Disadvantaged		All applicants	Disadvantaged	
United States	5,524	972	5,760	1,668	339	1,762	7,903	8,098	9,963	1,680	10,693	1,145	469	1,253
Alabama	93	18	96	21	4	27	131	129	208	45	205	19	7	19
Alaska	16	3	12	2	1	2	20	15	21	3	21	2	1	2
Arizona	85	13	85	30	5	31	111	112	119	20	135	7	4	6
Arkansas	101	43	106	34	18	36	113	113	146	52	164	14	10	16
California	482	63	552	132	17	165	832	923	1,192	134	1,300	91	37	100
Colorado	94	6	93	36	3	37	119	117	128	10	130	14	3	16
Connecticut	64	11	71	11	1	13	97	101	160	21	165	17	7	18
Delaware	6	1	7	(1)	(1)	1	11	11	18	2	16	2	1	3
District of Columbia	43	27	57	11	7	12	75	75	104	75	91	7	5	7
Florida	184	28	195	36	7	38	274	270	219	36	276	24	11	29
Georgia	138	19	139	29	4	37	204	198	196	35	191	18	11	20
Guam	(1)	--------	(1)	--------	--------	--------	9	10	2	--------	2	(1)	--------	(1)
Hawaii	11	1	11	(1)	(1)	(1)	26	25	37	3	40	3	1	3
Idaho	33	2	35	9	1	8	43	44	52	2	54	5	1	5
Illinois	182	27	168	55	4	47	251	242	385	89	414	67	32	74
Indiana	124	23	116	21	11	20	176	162	247	23	271	23	10	25
Iowa	69	7	73	26	3	29	92	97	87	7	97	9	3	9
Kansas	63	10	68	21	5	24	90	97	98	10	100	13	4	14
Kentucky	61	15	56	12	2	11	80	78	151	31	152	20	10	21
Louisiana	93	27	83	40	12	28	108	101	146	37	149	12	7	14
Maine	16	1	19	1	(1)	1	28	31	37	2	40	7	2	5
Maryland	67	16	71	7	1	8	124	111	162	44	147	23	11	28
Massachusetts	121	42	133	24	15	27	163	182	250	65	310	30	19	36
Michigan	202	20	217	90	3	99	246	267	432	56	502	51	22	49
Minnesota	104	8	99	32	1	25	136	137	191	19	204	16	4	20
Mississippi	87	22	84	15	6	16	105	103	150	41	158	28	10	32
Missouri	107	25	105	26	8	28	153	151	231	39	244	26	9	27
Montana	33	2	37	10	1	9	42	46	55	4	56	9	2	10
Nebraska	48	4	50	17	1	16	61	62	62	5	72	9	2	11
Nevada	29	1	26	12	(1)	10	40	37	39	3	49	5	2	4
New Hampshire	14	(1)	15	(1)	(1)	(1)	29	30	38	1	38	8	1	9
New Jersey	135	18	142	32	2	37	209	214	327	41	341	45	19	45
New Mexico	34	13	32	15	7	15	41	40	63	18	62	10	6	7
New York	639	81	706	239	34	281	972	1,054	734	124	792	107	31	121
North Carolina	102	14	101	9	2	9	170	173	236	31	247	28	10	32
North Dakota	23	3	24	7	1	7	32	33	33	3	37	3	1	4
Ohio	216	30	215	77	11	81	314	305	478	93	518	36	13	42
Oklahoma	153	35	164	89	23	95	181	188	145	29	147	19	11	22
Oregon	66	11	67	16	3	16	97	93	144	12	137	15	6	16
Pennsylvania	276	23	270	74	2	73	369	364	517	54	559	87	31	89
Puerto Rico	64	24	61	5	1	8	76	71	180	77	194	11	7	12
Rhode Island	23	1	24	6	(1)	5	37	38	46	2	49	9	2	11
South Carolina	61	12	59	10	3	10	92	87	120	26	121	11	4	12
South Dakota	25	4	23	10	2	8	38	35	33	5	33	4	2	5
Tennessee	106	14	105	17	2	16	145	142	181	32	182	20	11	19
Texas	476	143	534	203	83	207	615	656	659	125	723	75	33	89
Utah	35	11	36	10	8	10	50	47	68	5	81	10	4	10
Vermont	11	1	12	2	(1)	2	21	21	19	2	24	3	1	4
Virginia	104	18	105	18	5	19	148	156	192	31	191	29	9	31
Virgin Islands	2	--------	1	(1)	--------	(1)	8	7	5	--------	3	(1)	--------	1
Washington	99	14	95	52	9	38	130	128	163	16	169	7	4	10
West Virginia	24	5	22	5	2	5	29	28	81	18	85	16	7	14
Wisconsin	66	9	68	7	1	7	118	118	161	20	186	17	6	22
Wyoming	16	2	15	4	1	4	23	21	17	2	18	2	1	2

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[1] Less than 500.

Table F-16. Characteristics of Insured Unemployed U

State	Number of insured unemployed (thousands)	Male	White	Under 25 years
United States	[3] 1,062.1	58.0	86.4	13.3
Alabama	15.5	59.0	76.2	12.5
Alaska	3.4	78.9	(4)	7.8
Arizona	5.5	60.2	89.3	13.4
Arkansas	9.3	55.3	87.4	13.0
California	171.4	59.5	88.2	13.4
Colorado	3.7	68.3	(4)	13.3
Connecticut	22.6	59.4	88.5	12.8
Delaware	2.6	64.4	83.6	12.6
District of Columbia	3.8	55.6	30.4	11.5
Florida	18.9	45.4	92.3	6.7
Georgia	10.8	35.7	84.3	14.6
Hawaii	3.5	52.0	28.8	12.3
Idaho	4.3	66.9	98.9	11.3
Illinois	42.5	59.4	73.4	9.9
Indiana	15.8	58.4	87.5	14.8
Iowa	7.8	65.8	97.0	12.0
Kansas	6.5	61.9	89.3	14.9
Kentucky	13.0	65.9	92.2	13.7
Louisiana	19.3	75.3	62.1	22.9
Maine	6.9	50.2	(4)	22.1
Maryland	14.7	60.2	69.0	11.5
Massachusetts	47.0	50.8	95.6	10.5
Michigan	52.7	65.2	85.3	15.7
Minnesota	12.9	69.7	97.5	14.2
Mississippi	6.7	54.6	72.0	13.1
Missouri	23.5	57.3	(4)	17.3
Montana	3.4	70.5	96.0	12.1
Nebraska	3.4	56.7	90.7	14.5
Nevada	4.4	49.8	92.1	13.2
New Hampshire	1.7	44.7	(4)	7.9
New Jersey	60.2	50.1	81.0	12.6
New Mexico	4.2	54.6	81.1	16.1
New York	131.6	55.5	85.6	8.8
North Carolina	18.8	32.3	60.1	11.8
North Dakota	2.3	86.9	94.3	11.1
Ohio	32.6	66.6	86.4	15.8
Oklahoma	9.2	46.1	86.8	36.7
Oregon	15.3	62.0	97.7	23.3
Pennsylvania	66.4	58.3	89.5	12.1
Puerto Rico	31.9	61.9	(4)	26.4
Rhode Island	8.5	55.6	97.0	10.8
South Carolina	9.1	34.0	74.5	19.1
South Dakota	1.4	68.5	88.5	13.2
Tennessee	20.9	50.6	89.9	10.7
Texas	19.0	56.9	85.2	11.1
Utah	5.8	56.2	(4)	20.6
Vermont	2.3	56.9	(4)	14.8
Virginia	6.3	43.7	62.1	9.9
Washington	28.2	56.7	97.0	10.4
West Virginia	10.7	68.4	(4)	18.4
Wisconsin	18.9	67.7	92.7	13.7
Wyoming	1.0	67.3	97.0	12.2

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[1] Based on 10-month averages for most States except for the percent white, which is based on 2-month averages.

[3] Excludes data for some persons whose age was not reported.

Table F–17. Benefits to Insured Unemployed Under State Programs, by State, Fiscal Year 1969

State	Number receiving first benefit check during year (thousands)	Total benefits paid during year (millions)	Average weekly benefit amount	Average weeks compensated per beneficiary	Number exhausting benefits during year (thousands)
United States	4, 092	$2, 021	$45. 22	11. 4	806
Alabama	52	22	34. 84	12. 2	15
Alaska	11	8	44. 97	15. 5	3
Arizona	18	9	41. 08	11. 6	5
Arkansas	31	12	33. 58	11. 4	8
California	628	394	51. 03	12. 6	142
Colorado	15	7	50. 00	9. 2	2
Connecticut	120	59	53. 51	9. 6	15
Delaware	18	6	45. 36	7. 8	2
District of Columbia	12	8	48. 06	14. 9	3
Florida	57	20	32. 62	11. 3	22
Georgia	49	14	36. 94	8. 3	14
Hawaii	12	7	50. 16	13. 0	2
Idaho	17	7	43. 19	10. 0	4
Illinois	177	86	44. 57	11. 2	38
Indiana	82	25	37. 60	8. 4	18
Iowa	31	15	47. 28	10. 9	7
Kansas	29	13	45. 59	9. 8	5
Kentucky	46	20	39. 57	11. 1	9
Louisiana	67	37	41. 28	13. 7	19
Maine	28	10	37. 44	10. 3	5
Maryland	67	30	44. 54	10. 5	9
Massachusetts	167	94	47. 21	13. 1	35
Michigan	235	110	50. 38	9. 5	38
Minnesota	48	23	43. 15	11. 8	12
Mississippi	23	8	30. 63	10. 9	5
Missouri	91	35	43. 88	9. 5	13
Montana	13	5	32. 75	11. 8	3
Nebraska	14	6	39. 04	11. 4	3
Nevada	16	8	43. 38	12. 4	4
New Hampshire	10	2	40. 47	5. 9	(1)
New Jersey	235	155	53. 53	12. 8	58
New Mexico	13	6	33. 93	13. 6	3
New York	496	289	49. 38	12. 6	66
North Carolina	81	22	28. 49	10. 0	12
North Dakota	7	4	42. 54	13. 8	1
Ohio	143	61	46. 47	9. 4	14
Oklahoma	24	11	31. 62	14. 9	8
Oregon	55	23	39. 62	11. 2	8
Pennsylvania	261	121	45. 52	11. 0	28
Puerto Rico	79	24	24. 91	10. 1	43
Rhode Island	36	17	45. 90	10. 8	7
South Carolina	35	13	34. 74	10. 7	10
South Dakota	4	4	36. 09	12. 6	1
Tennessee	84	27	34. 17	9. 9	17
Texas	69	26	37. 07	10. 6	18
Utah	19	9	40. 62	12. 3	5
Vermont	9	4	44. 39	11. 9	1
Virginia	28	8	35. 42	8. 7	6
Washington	105	44	34. 09	12. 4	18
West Virginia	44	13	31. 35	9. 7	6
Wisconsin	73	39	50. 95	11. 2	14
Wyoming	4	2	42. 83	11. 1	1

[1] Less than 500 exhaustions.

Table F–18. Training Status of Registered Apprentices in Selected Trades, 1947–68

Year	In training at beginning of year	Apprentice actions during year			In training at end of year
		New registrations and reinstatements	Completions	Cancellations [1]	
	Total, all trades [2]				
1947	131, 217	94, 238	7, 311	25, 190	192, 954
1948	192, 954	85, 918	13, 375	35, 117	230, 380
1949	230, 380	66, 745	25, 045	41, 257	230, 823
1950	230, 823	60, 186	38, 533	49, 747	202, 729
1951	202, 729	63, 881	38, 754	56, 845	171, 011
1952	[3] 172, 477	62, 842	33, 098	43, 689	158, 532
1953	158, 532	73, 620	28, 561	43, 333	160, 258
1954	160, 258	58, 939	27, 383	33, 139	158, 675
1955	158, 675	67, 265	24, 795	26, 423	174, 722
1956	174, 722	74, 062	27, 231	33, 416	188, 137
1957	[3] 189, 684	59, 638	30, 356	33, 275	185, 691
1958	185, 691	49, 569	30, 647	26, 918	177, 695
1959	177, 695	66, 230	37, 375	40, 545	166, 005
1960	[3] 172, 161	54, 100	31, 727	33, 406	161, 128
1961	161, 128	49, 482	28, 547	26, 414	155, 649
1962	155, 649	55, 590	25, 918	26, 434	158, 887
1963	158, 887	57, 204	26, 029	26, 744	163, 318
1964	163, 318	59, 960	25, 744	27, 001	170, 533
1965	170, 533	68, 507	24, 917	30, 168	183, 955
1966	183, 955	85, 031	26, 511	34, 964	207, 511
1967	207, 511	97, 896	37, 299	47, 957	220, 151
1968	[3] 207, 517	111, 012	37, 287	43, 246	237, 996
	Construction trades				
1952	77, 920	33, 316	15, 679	18, 756	76, 801
1953	76, 801	37, 102	13, 523	18, 393	81, 987
1954	81, 987	34, 238	15, 537	18, 951	81, 737
1955	81, 737	47, 238	13, 444	14, 632	100, 899
1956	100, 899	42, 873	14, 588	16, 565	112, 619
1957 [4]	114, 166	38, 506	17, 344	24, 466	110, 862
1958	110, 862	34, 485	20, 255	16, 278	108, 814
1959	108, 814	37, 894	21, 067	18, 942	106, 699
1960	106, 699	33, 939	16, 656	21, 019	102, 963
1961	102, 963	33, 446	17, 251	18, 407	100, 751
1962	100, 751	36, 994	16, 477	18, 222	103, 046
1963	103, 046	36, 763	15, 559	17, 337	106, 913
1964	106, 913	38, 556	16, 286	19, 347	109, 836
1965	109, 836	41, 379	16, 201	20, 082	114, 932
1966	114, 932	46, 120	16, 352	22, 507	122, 193
1967	122, 193	48, 190	22, 051	26, 956	121, 376
1968	[3] 115, 236	58, 899	20, 263	21, 360	132, 512
	Metalworking trades				
1952	14, 645	5, 553	2, 149	2, 552	15, 497
1953	15, 497	9, 143	2, 210	3, 292	19, 138
1954	19, 138	6, 352	3, 641	3, 418	18, 431
1955	18, 431	7, 797	3, 617	2, 176	20, 435
1956	20, 435	8, 058	4, 253	2, 622	21, 618
1957	21, 618	8, 289	4, 740	4, 740	20, 427
1958	20, 427	3, 400	2, 541	2, 357	18, 929
1959	18, 929	5, 789	3, 537	2, 439	18, 742
1960 [5]	24, 898	7, 846	4, 986	3, 963	23, 795
1961	23, 795	6, 819	4, 719	3, 669	22, 226
1962	22, 226	8, 351	3, 611	3, 428	23, 538
1963	23, 538	9, 019	3, 799	3, 927	24, 831
1964	24, 831	10, 704	3, 923	3, 652	27, 960
1965	27, 960	14, 032	3, 770	4, 123	34, 099
1966	34, 099	21, 918	4, 799	6, 461	44, 757
1967	44, 757	30, 669	8, 470	12, 357	54, 599
1968	[3] 47, 436	25, 959	6, 916	10, 155	56, 324
	Printing trades				
1952	10, 069	2, 651	2, 513	1, 527	8, 680
1953	8, 680	4, 064	1, 959	1, 149	9, 636
1954	9, 636	3, 884	2, 093	1, 352	10, 075
1955	10, 075	6, 556	1, 435	998	14, 198
1956	14, 198	3, 590	1, 966	1, 326	14, 496
1957	14, 496	3, 679	1, 844	2, 113	14, 218
1958	14, 218	2, 167	1, 953	1, 014	13, 418
1959	13, 418	2, 050	1, 803	922	12, 743
1960	12, 743	3, 126	1, 675	935	13, 259
1961	13, 259	2, 968	2, 526	864	12, 837
1962	12, 837	3, 222	2, 286	1, 005	12, 768
1963	12, 768	3, 108	2, 569	1, 178	12, 129
1964	12, 129	2, 400	2, 267	845	11, 417
1965	11, 417	2, 587	1, 565	757	11, 682
1966	11, 682	3, 511	1, 692	1, 138	12, 363
1967	12, 363	3, 933	2, 073	2, 577	11, 646
1968	[3] 11, 236	5, 349	2, 124	1, 611	12, 850

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[1] Includes voluntary quits, layoffs, discharges, out-of-State transfers, upgrading within certain trades, and suspensions for military service.

[2] Also includes miscellaneous trades, not shown separately.

[3] The difference from the number in training at the end of the previous year reflects changes in the reporting system.

[4] Includes lathers beginning 1957.

[5] Includes new apprenticeship programs beginning 1960, mainly silversmiths, goldsmiths, coppersmiths, blacksmiths, and airplane mechanics.

Table F–19. Characteristics of Persons Enrolled in the Job Corps, 1968

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	Enrollees
Total: Number (thousands)	58,823
Percent	100
Sex:	
Male	72
Female	28
Age: Average years	17.6
Male	17.4
Female	18.3
Race:	
White	31
Negro	58
Other	11
Percent employed full or part time pre-Job Corps	16
Percent eligible for draft who failed test	63
Educational reasons	28
Physical reasons	22
Other	13
Home residence (population):	
Rural (less than 2,500)	21
Small-moderate (2,500-250,000)	50
Metropolitan area (over 250,000)	29

NOTE: The Job Corps was administered by the Office of Economic Opportunity from its inception January 1965 to June 30, 1969. The program was transferred to the Department of Labor effective July 1, 1969.

Table F–20. Job Corps Enrollments, January 1965–June 1969, and Federal Obligations for Fiscal Year 1969, by Home State of Enrollee

Home State of enrollee	Total enrollments, January 1965–June 1969	Enrollments, FY 1969	Federal obligations, FY 1969 (thousands)
United States	247,758	53,002	$278,097
Alabama	8,526	1,976	10,368
Alaska	359	51	356
Arizona	3,037	561	2,942
Arkansas	5,885	1,214	6,368
California	20,615	4,337	22,751
Colorado	3,310	663	3,473
Connecticut	1,189	225	1,179
Delaware	735	137	718
District of Columbia	1,848	353	1,852
Florida	10,715	2,591	13,593
Georgia	11,093	2,743	14,392
Hawaii	1,689	410	2,144
Idaho	673	81	420
Illinois	6,025	1,213	6,363
Indiana	2,815	632	3,315
Iowa	1,844	388	2,036
Kansas	2,071	462	2,422
Kentucky	5,889	954	5,000
Louisiana	11,572	2,677	14,044
Maine	1,065	133	693
Maryland	5,057	1,236	6,480
Massachusetts	2,222	299	1,569
Michigan	5,565	1,093	5,734
Minnesota	1,468	137	717
Mississippi	8,916	2,341	12,278
Missouri	5,730	1,185	6,238
Montana	1,240	310	1,621
Nebraska	1,118	200	1,048
Nevada	599	69	362
New Hampshire	389	54	278
New Jersey	4,228	674	3,535
New Mexico	2,527	469	2,456
New York	14,721	3,167	16,616
North Carolina	7,660	2,357	12,367
North Dakota	742	111	581
Ohio	7,283	1,477	7,748
Oklahoma	4,738	967	5,072
Oregon	2,313	432	2,266
Pennsylvania	7,778	1,797	9,427
Puerto Rico	2,551	841	4,411
Rhode Island	330	47	245
South Carolina	7,655	1,778	8,327
South Dakota	1,033	294	2,541
Tennessee	6,221	1,302	6,830
Texas	22,006	4,402	23,096
Utah	723	101	528
Vermont	266	31	161
Virginia	10,832	2,343	12,292
Virgin Islands	760	220	1,154
Washington	3,004	405	2,125
West Virginia	4,781	591	3,101
Wisconsin	1,880	380	1,988
Wyoming	467	91	476

NOTE: The Job Corps was administered by the Office of Economic Opportunity from its inception January 1965 to June 30, 1969. The program was transferred to the Department of Labor effective July 1, 1969.

Table F–21. Enrollments in Federally Aided Vocational-Technical Education, by Type of Program, Fiscal Years 1964–68

Program	Number (thousands)					Percent distribution [1]				
	FY 1968	FY 1967	FY 1966	FY 1965	FY 1964	FY 1968	FY 1967	FY 1966	FY 1965	FY 1964
Total	7,534	7,048	6,070	5,431	4,566	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Secondary	3,843	3,533	3,048	2,819	2,141	51.0	50.1	50.2	51.9	46.9
Postsecondary	593	500	442	207	171	7.9	7.1	7.3	3.8	3.7
Adult	2,987	2,941	2,531	2,378	2,255	39.6	41.7	41.7	43.8	49.4
Special needs	111	74	49	26	----------	1.5	1.0	.8	.5	----------
Agriculture	851	935	907	888	861	11.3	13.3	14.9	16.3	18.8
Secondary	528	509	510	517	502	7.0	7.2	8.4	9.5	11.0
Postsecondary	11	8	6	2	----------	.1	.1	.1	(2)	----------
Adult and special needs	312	418	391	369	359	4.1	5.9	6.4	6.8	7.9
Distributive	575	481	420	333	334	7.6	6.8	6.9	6.1	7.3
Secondary	176	151	102	76	55	2.3	2.1	1.7	1.4	1.2
Postsecondary	45	21	16	6	3	.6	.3	.3	.1	.1
Adult and special needs	354	309	303	251	276	4.7	4.4	5.0	4.6	6.1
Health	141	115	84	67	59	1.9	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.3
Secondary	21	17	10	9	5	.3	.2	.2	.2	.1
Postsecondary	65	54	36	21	41	.9	.8	.6	.4	.9
Adult and special needs	55	44	37	37	12	.7	.6	.6	.7	.3
Home economics	2,283	2,187	1,898	2,099	2,022	30.3	31.0	31.3	38.6	44.3
Secondary	1,558	1,475	1,280	1,443	1,308	20.7	20.9	21.1	26.6	28.7
Postsecondary	4	4	3	2	2	.1	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Adult and special needs	721	708	615	654	712	9.6	10.0	10.1	12.0	15.6
Office	1,736	1,572	1,238	731	----------	23.0	22.3	20.4	13.5	----------
Secondary	1,060	985	798	498	----------	14.1	14.0	13.2	9.2	----------
Postsecondary	225	193	165	44	----------	3.0	2.7	2.7	.8	----------
Adult and special needs	451	394	274	189	----------	6.0	5.6	4.5	3.5	----------
Technical	270	266	254	226	221	3.6	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.8
Secondary	36	28	29	24	21	.5	.4	.5	.4	.5
Postsecondary	105	97	100	72	72	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.3	1.6
Adult and special needs	129	141	125	130	129	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.8
Trades and industry	1,629	1,491	1,269	1,088	1,069	21.6	21.2	20.9	20.0	23.4
Secondary	422	368	319	253	249	5.6	5.2	5.3	4.7	5.5
Postsecondary	138	123	116	60	54	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.1	1.2
Adult and special needs	1,069	1,000	835	775	767	14.2	14.2	13.7	14.3	16.8
Other [3]	49	----------	----------	----------	----------	.7	----------	----------	----------	----------
Secondary	42	----------	----------	----------	----------	.6	----------	----------	----------	----------
Postsecondary	(4)	----------	----------	----------	----------	(2)	----------	----------	----------	----------
Adult and special needs	7	----------	----------	----------	----------	.1	----------	----------	----------	----------

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[1] Based on unrounded data.

[2] Less than 0.1 percent.

[3] Includes developing programs which do not fit precisely into the occupational groups listed.

[4] Less than 500.

SOURCE: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.

Table G–1. Indexes of Output per Man-Hour and Related Data [1] for the Private Economy and Year-to-Year Percent Change, 1947–69

Year	Indexes (annual averages 1957–59=100)					Year	Year-to-year percent change [2]				
	Total private	Farm	Nonfarm				Total private	Farm	Nonfarm		
			Total	Manu-facturing	Nonmanu-facturing				Total	Manu-facturing	Nonmanu-facturing
	Output per man-hour										
1947	69.0	49.8	74.1	72.3	75.1						
1948	72.0	58.0	76.5	76.4	76.3	1947–48	4.3	16.5	3.2	5.7	1.6
1949	74.2	56.5	79.5	79.3	79.6	1948–49	3.1	−2.6	3.9	3.8	4.3
1950	80.3	64.4	84.4	85.0	84.1	1949–50	8.2	14.0	6.2	7.2	5.7
1951	82.7	64.7	86.3	86.9	85.6	1950–51	3.0	.5	2.3	2.2	1.8
1952	84.3	70.3	87.0	87.3	86.7	1951–52	1.9	8.7	.8	.5	1.3
1953	87.8	79.6	89.6	90.2	88.8	1952–53	4.2	13.2	3.0	3.3	2.4
1954	89.9	83.7	91.6	91.8	91.5	1953–54	2.4	5.2	2.2	1.8	3.0
1955	93.9	84.4	95.7	97.2	94.7	1954–55	4.4	.8	4.5	5.9	3.5
1956	94.1	88.0	95.2	96.2	94.3	1955–56	.2	4.3	−.5	−1.0	−.4
1957	96.9	93.3	97.2	98.2	96.7	1956–57	3.0	6.0	2.1	2.1	2.5
1958	99.8	103.0	99.7	98.1	100.6	1957–58	3.0	10.4	2.6	−.1	4.0
1959	103.4	104.8	103.1	103.7	102.9	1958–59	3.6	1.7	3.4	5.7	2.3
1960	105.0	110.7	104.4	105.5	103.9	1959–60	1.5	5.6	1.3	1.7	1.0
1961	108.6	119.4	107.4	107.9	107.4	1960–61	3.4	7.9	2.9	2.3	3.4
1962	113.8	122.2	112.3	114.3	111.5	1961–62	4.8	2.3	4.6	5.9	3.8
1963	117.9	133.1	115.7	118.9	114.3	1962–63	3.6	8.9	3.0	4.0	2.5
1964	122.5	135.5	120.0	124.7	118.0	1963–64	3.9	1.8	3.7	4.9	3.2
1965	126.6	148.1	123.6	129.8	120.5	1964–65	3.4	9.5	2.9	4.1	2.0
1966	131.7	153.8	127.9	131.8	125.8	1965–66	4.0	4.1	3.5	1.6	4.4
1967	134.3	168.5	129.9	132.1	128.7	1966–67	2.0	9.6	1.6	.2	2.4
1968	138.7	168.5	134.2	139.2	131.6	1967–68	3.3	.0	3.3	5.4	2.2
1969 [3]	139.9	181.4	134.8	142.8	130.6	1968–69	.9	7.6	.4	2.6	.7
	Output per employed person										
1947	73.6	55.6	77.5	73.4	79.5						
1948	76.0	64.3	79.3	76.9	80.4	1947–48	3.5	15.6	2.2	4.8	1.0
1949	77.4	61.6	81.3	78.4	82.8	1948–49	1.8	−4.3	2.6	1.8	3.1
1950	83.9	69.1	87.0	86.3	87.2	1949–50	8.1	12.3	7.0	10.1	5.4
1951	86.3	70.2	88.8	88.5	88.7	1950–51	2.9	1.5	2.0	2.5	1.6
1952	87.5	75.5	89.6	89.1	89.5	1951–52	1.6	7.6	.9	.6	1.0
1953	90.7	86.6	91.7	91.5	91.2	1952–53	3.6	14.6	2.3	2.9	1.9
1954	91.9	89.4	92.9	91.6	93.4	1953–54	1.4	3.2	1.4	−.1	2.4
1955	96.4	88.8	97.5	99.0	96.5	1954–55	4.8	−.6	5.0	8.2	3.4
1956	95.8	90.6	96.6	97.4	96.0	1955–56	−.6	2.1	−1.0	−1.6	−.6
1957	97.2	93.9	97.6	98.3	97.2	1956–57	1.5	3.5	1.1	.8	1.3
1958	99.3	102.7	99.2	97.1	100.2	1957–58	2.1	9.4	1.5	−1.1	3.1
1959	103.5	104.5	103.3	104.6	102.7	1958–59	4.2	1.8	4.2	7.7	2.4
1960	104.5	111.1	104.0	105.1	103.4	1959–60	1.1	6.3	.7	.5	.8
1961	107.3	117.9	106.3	107.7	105.9	1960–61	2.6	6.2	2.3	2.5	2.3
1962	112.6	122.3	111.4	115.1	109.8	1961–62	5.0	3.7	4.8	6.8	3.8
1963	116.5	132.2	114.6	119.8	112.5	1962–63	3.4	8.1	3.0	4.2	2.4
1964	120.8	134.8	118.8	126.2	115.6	1963–64	3.7	1.9	3.6	5.3	2.8
1965	125.2	149.3	122.5	132.5	117.9	1964–65	3.6	10.8	3.1	5.0	2.0
1966	129.2	154.0	126.0	134.7	121.8	1965–66	3.2	3.5	2.9	1.7	3.3
1967	130.0	167.3	126.3	133.2	123.1	1966–67	.6	8.6	.2	1.1	1.1
1968	133.7	166.6	130.0	140.6	125.0	1967–68	2.8	.4	2.9	5.6	1.5
1969 [3]	134.5	178.7	130.2	144.0	123.9	1968–69	.6	7.2	.2	2.4	.9
	Output										
1947	67.6	82.1	66.8	69.3	65.6						
1948	70.8	91.8	69.8	72.7	68.3	1947–48	4.8	11.8	4.4	4.9	4.1
1949	70.6	88.9	69.7	68.7	70.2	1948–49	−.3	−3.2	−.1	−5.6	2.8
1950	77.9	93.7	77.0	79.7	75.7	1949–50	10.2	5.4	10.6	16.1	7.8
1951	82.8	88.9	82.5	87.8	79.8	1950–51	6.3	−5.2	7.0	10.1	5.4
1952	84.8	91.8	84.5	89.7	81.9	1951–52	2.5	3.3	2.5	2.2	2.6
1953	89.1	96.6	88.8	97.1	84.5	1952–53	5.1	5.3	5.1	8.3	3.2
1954	87.9	98.6	87.4	90.3	86.0	1953–54	−1.3	2.0	−1.5	−7.1	1.7
1955	95.4	101.0	95.1	100.9	92.2	1954–55	8.5	2.5	8.8	11.8	7.2
1956	97.2	100.5	97.1	101.3	94.9	1955–56	1.9	−.5	2.0	.4	3.0
1957	98.6	98.1	98.6	101.7	97.1	1956–57	1.4	−2.4	1.6	.4	2.3
1958	97.3	100.5	97.2	93.4	99.1	1957–58	−1.3	2.5	−1.5	−8.1	2.0
1959	104.1	101.9	104.2	104.9	103.9	1958–59	7.0	1.4	7.3	12.3	4.9
1960	106.6	105.8	106.7	106.4	106.8	1959–60	2.4	3.8	2.4	1.4	2.9
1961	108.6	107.2	108.7	106.0	110.1	1960–61	1.9	1.4	1.9	−.4	3.0
1962	116.0	106.8	116.5	116.8	116.3	1961–62	6.8	−.5	7.1	10.1	5.7
1963	120.8	110.1	121.4	122.7	120.8	1962–63	4.2	3.2	4.3	5.0	3.9
1964	127.8	107.7	128.8	131.2	127.7	1963–64	5.7	−2.2	6.1	7.0	5.7
1965	136.2	114.5	137.3	143.9	134.0	1964–65	6.6	6.3	6.6	9.7	5.0
1966	144.9	108.2	146.9	155.4	142.6	1965–66	6.4	5.5	7.0	8.0	6.4
1967	148.2	114.5	150.0	155.3	147.3	1966–67	2.2	5.8	2.1	.0	3.3
1968	155.6	112.6	157.9	166.6	153.5	1967–68	5.0	1.7	5.3	7.3	4.2
1969 [3]	160.1	113.5	162.6	173.6	157.0	1968–69	2.9	.9	3.0	4.2	2.3

Footnotes at end of table.

Table G–1. Indexes of Output per Man-Hour and Related Data[1] for the Private Economy and Year-to-Year Percent Change, 1947–69—Continued

Year	Indexes (annual averages 1957–59=100)					Year	Year-to-year percent change[2]				
	Total private	Farm	Nonfarm				Total private	Farm	Nonfarm		
			Total	Manufacturing	Nonmanufacturing				Total	Manufacturing	Nonmanufacturing
	Employment										
1947	91.9	147.7	86.2	94.4	82.5						
1948	93.1	142.8	88.0	94.5	85.0	1947–48	1.3	−3.3	2.1	0.1	3.1
1949	91.2	144.4	85.7	87.6	84.8	1948–49	−2.1	1.2	−2.6	−7.3	−.3
1950	92.9	135.6	88.5	92.3	86.8	1949–50	1.9	−6.1	3.3	5.4	2.4
1951	96.0	126.7	92.9	99.2	90.0	1950–51	3.3	−6.5	4.9	7.5	3.7
1952	96.9	121.6	94.3	100.7	91.5	1951–52	.9	−4.1	1.6	1.5	1.6
1953	98.2	111.6	96.8	106.1	92.7	1952–53	1.4	−8.2	2.7	5.3	1.4
1954	95.6	110.3	94.1	98.6	92.1	1953–54	−2.7	−1.2	−2.8	−7.0	−.7
1955	99.0	113.7	97.5	101.9	95.5	1954–55	3.5	3.1	3.6	3.3	3.7
1956	101.5	113.9	100.5	104.0	98.9	1955–56	2.5	−2.5	3.1	2.0	3.6
1957	101.4	104.5	101.0	103.5	99.9	1956–57	−.1	−5.7	.5	−.4	1.0
1958	98.0	97.9	98.0	96.2	98.9	1957–58	−3.3	−6.3	−3.0	−7.1	−1.0
1959	100.6	97.5	100.9	100.3	101.2	1958–59	2.6	−.4	2.9	4.3	2.4
1960	102.0	95.2	102.6	101.2	103.3	1959–60	1.3	−2.4	1.7	.9	2.1
1961	101.2	90.9	102.3	98.4	104.0	1960–61	−.7	−4.6	−.4	−2.8	.7
1962	103.0	87.3	104.6	101.5	105.9	1961–62	1.7	−4.0	2.2	3.2	1.9
1963	103.7	83.3	105.9	102.4	107.4	1962–63	.8	−4.6	1.2	.8	1.4
1964	105.8	79.9	108.4	104.0	110.5	1963–64	2.0	−4.1	2.4	1.6	2.8
1965	108.8	76.7	112.1	108.6	113.7	1964–65	2.9	−4.0	3.4	4.5	2.9
1966	112.2	70.0	116.6	115.3	117.1	1965–66	3.1	−8.6	3.3	6.2	3.0
1967	114.0	68.2	118.7	116.6	119.7	1966–67	1.6	−2.6	1.9	1.1	2.2
1968	116.4	67.4	121.5	118.5	122.8	1967–68	2.1	−1.3	2.3	1.6	2.6
1969[3]	119.1	63.3	124.8	120.6	126.7	1968–69	2.3	−6.0	2.8	1.8	3.2
	Man-hours										
1947	98.0	164.8	90.1	95.8	87.4						
1948	98.4	158.4	91.3	95.1	89.5	1947–48	0.4	−3.9	1.3	−0.7	2.3
1949	95.1	157.3	87.7	86.6	88.2	1948–49	−3.4	.7	−3.9	−8.9	−1.5
1950	97.0	145.6	91.2	93.8	90.0	1949–50	2.0	−7.4	4.0	8.3	2.0
1951	100.1	137.5	95.6	101.0	93.2	1950–51	3.2	−5.6	4.9	7.6	3.6
1952	100.6	130.6	97.1	102.7	94.5	1951–52	.5	−5.1	1.5	1.7	1.4
1953	101.5	121.4	99.1	107.7	95.2	1952–53	.8	−7.0	2.1	4.9	.7
1954	97.8	117.8	95.4	98.4	94.0	1953–54	−3.7	−3.0	−3.8	−8.6	−1.2
1955	101.6	119.6	99.4	103.8	97.4	1954–55	3.9	1.6	4.2	5.5	3.6
1956	103.3	114.2	102.0	105.3	100.6	1955–56	1.7	−4.6	2.6	1.5	3.2
1957	101.8	105.1	101.4	103.6	100.4	1956–57	−1.5	−7.9	−.6	−1.6	−.1
1958	97.5	97.6	97.5	95.2	98.5	1957–58	−4.2	−7.1	−3.9	−8.1	−1.9
1959	100.7	97.2	101.1	101.2	101.0	1958–59	3.2	−.4	3.7	6.4	2.5
1960	101.5	95.6	102.2	100.9	102.8	1959–60	.8	−1.7	1.1	−.3	1.8
1961	100.0	89.8	101.2	98.2	102.5	1960–61	−1.5	−6.0	−1.0	−2.7	−.3
1962	101.9	87.4	103.7	102.2	104.3	1961–62	2.0	−2.7	2.5	4.1	1.8
1963	102.5	82.7	104.9	103.2	105.7	1962–63	.6	−5.4	1.2	1.0	1.3
1964	104.3	79.5	107.3	105.2	108.2	1963–64	1.8	−3.8	2.3	2.0	2.4
1965	107.5	77.3	111.1	110.9	111.2	1964–65	3.1	−2.8	3.6	5.4	2.8
1966	110.1	70.1	114.8	117.9	113.4	1965–66	2.4	−9.2	3.3	6.3	2.0
1967	110.4	67.7	115.4	117.6	114.4	1966–67	.3	−3.5	.5	−.2	.9
1968	112.2	66.6	117.6	119.7	116.6	1967–68	1.7	−1.7	1.9	1.8	1.9
1969[3]	114.4	62.4	120.6	121.6	120.2	1968–69	2.0	−6.3	2.6	1.6	3.0

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[1] Output refers to gross national product in 1958 dollars. The man-hours data are based principally on employment and hours derived from the monthly payroll survey of establishments.

[2] Based on original data, not on the indexes shown.

[3] Preliminary.

Table G–2. Gross National Product or Expenditure in Current and Constant Dollars, by Purchasing Sector, 1947–69

Year	Total gross national product	Personal consumption expenditures				Gross private domestic investment				Net exports of goods and services	Government purchases of goods and services				
		Total	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	Services	Total	Nonresidential	Residential structures	Change in business inventories		Total	Federal			State and local
												Total	National defense	Other	
	Billions of current dollars														
1947	231.3	260.7	20.4	90.5	49.8	34.0	23.4	11.1	−0.5	11.5	25.1	12.5	9.1	3.5	12.6
1948	257.6	173.6	22.7	96.2	54.7	46.0	26.9	14.4	4.7	6.4	31.6	16.5	10.7	5.8	15.0
1949	256.5	176.8	24.6	94.5	57.6	35.7	25.1	13.7	−3.1	6.1	37.8	20.1	13.3	6.8	17.7
1950	284.8	191.0	30.5	98.1	62.4	54.1	27.9	19.4	6.8	1.8	37.9	18.4	14.1	4.3	19.5
1951	328.4	206.3	29.6	108.8	67.9	59.3	31.8	17.2	10.3	3.7	59.1	37.7	33.6	4.1	21.5
1952	345.5	216.7	29.3	114.0	73.4	51.9	31.6	17.2	3.1	2.2	74.7	51.8	45.9	5.9	22.9
1953	364.6	230.0	33.2	116.8	79.9	52.6	34.2	18.0	.4	.4	81.6	57.0	48.7	8.4	24.6
1954	364.8	236.5	32.8	118.3	85.4	51.7	33.6	19.7	−1.5	1.8	74.8	47.4	41.2	6.2	27.4
1955	398.0	254.4	39.6	123.3	91.4	67.4	38.1	23.3	6.0	2.0	74.2	44.1	38.6	5.5	30.1
1956	419.2	266.7	38.9	129.3	98.5	70.0	43.7	21.6	4.7	4.0	78.6	45.6	40.3	5.3	33.0
1957	441.1	281.4	40.8	135.6	105.0	67.9	46.4	20.2	1.3	5.7	86.1	49.5	44.2	5.3	36.6
1958	447.3	290.1	37.9	140.2	112.0	60.9	41.6	20.8	−1.5	2.2	94.2	53.6	45.9	7.7	40.6
1959	483.7	311.2	44.3	146.6	120.3	75.3	45.1	25.5	4.8	.1	97.0	53.7	46.0	7.6	43.3
1960	503.7	325.2	45.3	151.3	128.7	74.8	48.4	22.8	3.6	4.1	99.6	53.5	44.9	8.6	46.1
1961	520.1	335.2	44.3	155.9	135.1	71.7	47.0	22.6	2.0	5.6	107.6	57.4	47.8	9.6	50.2
1962	560.3	355.1	49.5	162.6	143.0	83.0	51.7	25.3	6.0	5.1	117.1	63.4	51.6	11.8	53.7
1963	590.5	375.0	53.9	168.6	152.4	87.1	54.3	27.0	5.9	5.9	122.5	64.2	50.8	13.5	58.2
1964	632.4	401.2	59.2	178.7	163.3	94.0	61.1	27.1	5.8	8.5	128.7	65.2	50.0	15.2	63.5
1965	683.9	433.1	66.0	191.2	175.9	107.4	71.1	27.0	9.4	6.9	136.4	66.8	50.1	16.7	69.6
1966	749.9	466.3	70.8	206.9	188.6	121.4	81.6	25.0	14.8	5.3	156.8	77.8	60.7	17.1	79.0
1967	793.5	492.3	73.0	215.1	204.2	116.0	83.7	25.0	7.4	5.2	180.1	90.7	72.4	18.4	89.3
1968	865.7	536.6	83.3	230.6	222.8	126.3	88.8	30.2	7.3	2.5	200.3	99.5	78.0	21.5	100.7
1969 [1]	932.3	576.0	89.6	243.8	242.5	139.6	99.3	32.2	8.0	2.1	214.7	102.0	79.3	22.8	112.7
	Billions of constant dollars, 1958 prices														
1947	309.9	206.3	24.7	108.3	73.4	51.5	36.2	15.4	−0.2	12.3	39.9	19.1	(2)	(2)	20.7
1948	323.7	210.8	26.3	108.7	75.8	60.4	38.0	17.9	4.6	6.1	46.3	23.7	(2)	(2)	22.8
1949	324.1	216.5	28.4	110.5	77.6	48.0	34.5	17.4	−3.9	6.4	53.3	27.6	(2)	(2)	25.7
1950	355.3	230.5	34.7	114.0	81.8	69.3	37.5	23.5	8.3	2.7	52.8	25.3	(2)	(2)	27.5
1951	383.4	232.8	31.5	116.5	84.8	70.0	39.6	19.5	10.9	5.3	75.4	47.4	(2)	(2)	27.9
1952	395.1	239.4	30.8	120.8	87.8	60.5	38.3	18.9	3.3	3.0	92.1	63.8	(2)	(2)	28.4
1953	412.8	250.8	35.3	124.4	91.1	61.2	40.7	19.6	.9	1.1	99.8	70.0	(2)	(2)	29.7
1954	407.0	255.7	35.4	125.5	94.8	59.4	39.6	21.7	−2.0	3.0	88.9	56.8	(2)	(2)	32.1
1955	438.0	274.2	43.2	131.7	99.3	75.4	43.9	25.1	6.4	3.2	85.2	50.7	(2)	(2)	34.4
1956	446.1	281.4	41.0	136.2	104.1	74.3	47.3	22.2	4.8	5.0	85.3	49.7	(2)	(2)	35.6
1957	452.5	288.2	41.5	138.7	108.0	68.8	47.4	20.2	1.2	6.2	89.3	51.7	(2)	(2)	37.6
1958	447.3	290.1	37.9	140.2	112.0	60.9	41.6	20.8	−1.5	2.2	94.2	53.6	(2)	(2)	40.6
1959	475.9	307.3	43.7	146.8	116.8	73.6	44.1	24.7	4.8	.3	94.7	52.5	(2)	(2)	42.2
1960	487.7	316.1	44.9	149.6	121.6	72.4	47.1	21.9	3.5	4.3	94.9	51.4	(2)	(2)	43.5
1961	497.2	322.5	43.9	153.0	125.6	69.0	45.5	21.6	2.0	5.1	100.5	54.6	(2)	(2)	45.9
1962	529.8	338.4	49.2	158.2	131.1	79.4	49.7	23.8	6.0	4.5	107.5	60.0	(2)	(2)	47.5
1963	551.0	353.3	53.7	162.2	137.4	82.5	51.9	24.8	5.8	5.6	109.6	59.5	(2)	(2)	50.1
1964	581.1	373.7	59.0	170.3	144.4	87.8	57.8	24.2	5.8	8.3	111.2	58.1	(2)	(2)	53.2
1965	616.7	398.4	66.4	178.9	153.2	98.0	66.0	23.2	8.8	6.0	114.3	57.8	(2)	(2)	56.4
1966	658.1	418.1	71.7	187.0	159.4	109.3	74.1	21.3	13.9	4.2	126.5	65.4	(2)	(2)	61.1
1967	674.6	430.3	72.8	190.3	167.2	100.8	73.6	20.3	6.9	3.6	140.0	74.8	(2)	(2)	65.2
1968	707.6	452.6	80.7	196.9	175.0	105.7	75.8	23.3	6.6	.9	148.4	78.9	(2)	(2)	69.5
1969 [1]	727.7	466.0	84.8	199.5	181.7	111.9	81.5	23.5	6.9	0	149.8	76.1	(2)	(2)	73.7

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Not available.

SOURCE: Department of Commerce, Office of Business Economics.

Table G–3. Government Purchases of Goods and Services, 1962–69

[Billions of dollars]

Level of government	Total[1]	Government purchases of goods and services[2]					Compensation of employees of government enterprises
		Total	Purchases from private industry	Compensation of general government personnel			
				Total	Civilian	Military	
TOTAL							
1962	$123.1	$117.1	$62.5	$54.7	$43.2	$11.5	$6.0
1963	129.0	122.5	64.4	58.1	46.5	11.7	6.6
1964	135.7	128.7	65.7	63.0	50.4	12.6	7.0
1965	144.4	137.0	69.2	67.8	54.7	13.1	7.4
1966	164.9	156.8	80.2	76.6	60.9	15.8	8.1
1967	188.9	180.1	94.7	85.3	67.9	17.5	8.8
1968	210.1	200.3	105.1	95.2	75.8	19.4	9.8
1969	(3)	214.8	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
FEDERAL GOVERNMENT							
1962	67.5	63.4	39.1	24.3	12.8	11.5	4.1
1963	68.7	64.2	39.0	25.3	13.6	11.7	4.4
1964	69.9	65.2	38.0	27.2	14.5	12.6	4.7
1965	71.9	66.9	38.4	28.5	15.3	13.1	5.0
1966	83.2	77.8	45.2	32.6	16.8	15.8	5.5
1967	96.6	90.7	55.0	35.8	18.3	17.5	5.9
1968	106.1	99.5	60.1	39.5	20.1	19.4	6.6
1969	(3)	102.1	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Defense and Atomic Energy Programs							
1962	51.8	51.6	33.0	18.6	7.1	11.5	.3
1963	51.0	50.8	31.8	19.0	7.4	11.7	.3
1964	50.3	50.0	29.6	20.3	7.7	12.6	.3
1965	50.4	50.1	28.9	21.2	8.1	13.1	.3
1966	61.0	60.7	35.9	24.8	9.0	15.8	.3
1967	72.7	72.4	45.0	27.4	9.9	17.5	.3
1968	78.3	78.0	47.8	30.2	10.8	19.4	.3
1969	(3)	79.3	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Nondefense and Space Programs							
1962	15.6	11.8	6.1	5.7	5.7	----------	3.8
1963	17.6	13.5	7.2	6.3	6.3	----------	4.1
1964	19.6	15.2	8.4	6.8	6.8	----------	4.4
1965	21.5	16.8	9.5	7.3	7.3	----------	4.7
1966	22.3	17.1	9.3	7.8	7.8	----------	5.2
1967	24.0	18.4	10.0	8.4	8.4	----------	5.6
1968	27.8	21.5	12.2	9.3	9.3	----------	6.3
1969	(3)	22.8	(3)	(3)	(3)	----------	(3)
STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT							
1962	55.7	53.7	23.3	30.4	30.4	----------	1.9
1963	60.4	58.2	25.4	32.9	32.9	----------	2.1
1964	65.8	63.5	27.7	35.9	35.9	----------	2.3
1965	72.4	70.1	30.8	39.3	39.3	----------	2.4
1966	81.6	79.0	35.0	44.0	44.0	----------	2.6
1967	92.2	89.3	39.8	49.6	49.6	----------	2.9
1968	104.0	100.7	45.0	55.7	55.7	----------	3.3
1969	(3)	112.7	(3)	(3)	(3)	----------	(3)

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[1] For comparability with data on government employment, compensation of government enterprise employees has been added to the total of government purchases of goods and services, as shown in the national income and product accounts. Capital expenditures by these enterprises are included in government purchases of goods and services. (Government enterprises include government-operated activities selling products and services to the public, such as the postal service, local water departments, and publicly owned power stations.)

[2] As defined in the national income and product accounts.

[3] Not available.

SOURCE: Based on data from Department of Commerce, Office of Business Economics.

Table G–4. Employment Resulting From Government Purchases of Goods and Services, and Employment in Government Enterprises, 1962–69

[Millions of employees]

Level of government	Total	Public and private employment resulting from government purchases of goods and services [1]					Employment in government enterprises [2]
		Total	Employment in private industry	General government personnel			
				Total	Civilian	Military	
TOTAL							
1962	18.3	17.2	6.1	11.1	8.3	2.8	1.1
1963	18.8	17.7	6.4	11.3	8.6	2.7	1.1
1964	19.2	18.0	6.4	11.6	8.9	2.7	1.2
1965	19.3	18.1	6.1	12.0	9.3	2.7	1.2
1966	20.8	19.5	6.3	13.2	10.0	3.1	1.3
1967	23.0	21.7	7.8	13.9	10.5	3.4	1.3
1968	24.0	22.7	8.3	14.4	10.9	3.5	1.3
1969 [3]	24.4	23.0	8.4	14.6	11.2	3.4	1.4
FEDERAL GOVERNMENT							
1962	9.0	8.4	3.7	4.6	1.8	2.8	.7
1963	9.1	8.4	3.9	4.5	1.8	2.7	.7
1964	8.9	8.2	3.7	4.5	1.8	2.7	.7
1965	8.9	8.1	3.5	4.6	1.8	2.7	.8
1966	9.6	8.7	3.6	5.1	2.0	3.1	.9
1967	10.9	10.0	4.5	5.5	2.1	3.4	.9
1968	11.2	10.3	4.7	5.6	2.1	3.5	.9
1969 [3]	10.9	10.0	4.5	5.5	2.1	3.4	.9
Defense and Atomic Energy Programs							
1962	6.9	6.8	2.9	3.9	1.0	2.8	.1
1963	6.4	6.3	2.6	3.7	1.0	2.7	.1
1964	6.3	6.3	2.6	3.7	1.0	2.7	.1
1965	6.4	6.3	2.5	3.7	1.0	2.7	.1
1966	7.1	7.0	2.9	4.1	1.0	3.1	.1
1967	8.3	8.2	3.6	4.5	1.1	3.4	.1
1968	8.7	8.6	3.8	4.7	1.2	3.5	.1
1969 [3]	8.3	8.2	3.6	4.5	1.1	3.4	.1
Nondefense and Space Programs							
1962	2.2	1.6	.8	.8	.8	------------	.6
1963	2.7	2.1	1.3	.8	.8	------------	.6
1964	2.5	1.9	1.1	.8	.8	------------	.6
1965	2.6	1.9	1.0	.9	.9	------------	.7
1966	2.6	1.8	.8	1.0	1.0	------------	.8
1967	2.6	1.9	.9	1.0	1.0	------------	.8
1968	2.6	1.3	.9	.9	.9	------------	.8
1969 [3]	2.7	1.9	.9	1.0	1.0	------------	.8
STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT							
1962	9.3	8.9	2.4	6.5	6.5	------------	.4
1963	9.6	9.2	2.5	6.7	6.7	------------	.4
1964	10.1	9.7	2.7	7.0	7.0	------------	.4
1965	10.5	10.0	2.6	7.4	7.4	------------	.5
1966	11.2	10.7	2.7	8.0	8.0	------------	.5
1967	12.2	11.7	3.3	8.4	8.4	------------	.5
1968	12.9	12.4	3.6	8.8	8.8	------------	.5
1969 [3]	13.5	13.0	3.9	9.1	9.1	------------	.5

[1] Derived from the national income and product accounts.

[2] Includes government-operated activities selling products and services to the public, such as the postal service, local water departments, and publicly owned power stations.

[3] Preliminary.

NOTE: Total government personnel, not shown separately, is the sum of general government personnel and employment in government enterprises.

SOURCE: Based on data from Department of Commerce, Office of Business Economics.

Table G–5. Work Stoppages Resulting From Labor-Management Disputes Involving Six or More Workers for at Least 1 Full Day or Shift, 1947–69

Year	Work stoppages beginning in year				Man-days idle during year (for all stoppages in effect)			
	Number of stoppages	Average duration [1] (calendar days)	Workers involved [2] (thousands)	Percent of total economy employed	Number (thousands)	Percent of estimated total working time [3]		Per worker involved
						Total economy	Private nonfarm	
1947	3,693	25.6	2,170	4.7	34,600	0.30	0.41	15.9
1948	3,419	21.8	1,960	4.2	34,100	.28	.37	17.4
1949	3,606	22.5	3,030	6.7	50,500	.44	.59	16.7
1950	4,843	19.2	2,410	5.1	38,800	.33	.40	16.1
1951	4,737	17.4	2,220	4.5	22,900	.18	.21	10.3
1952	5,117	19.6	3,540	7.3	59,100	.48	.57	16.7
1953	5,091	20.3	2,400	4.7	28,300	.22	.26	11.8
1954	3,468	22.5	1,530	3.1	22,600	.18	.19	14.7
1955	4,320	18.5	2,650	5.2	28,200	.22	.26	10.7
1956	3,825	18.9	1,900	3.6	33,100	.24	.29	17.4
1957	3,673	19.2	1,390	2.6	16,500	.12	.14	11.4
1958	3,694	19.7	2,060	3.9	23,900	.18	.22	11.6
1959	3,708	24.6	1,880	3.3	69,000	.50	.61	36.7
1960	3,333	23.4	1,320	2.4	19,100	.14	.17	14.5
1961	3,367	23.7	1,450	2.6	16,300	.11	.12	11.2
1962	3,614	24.6	1,230	2.2	18,600	.13	.16	15.0
1963	3,362	23.0	941	1.1	16,100	.11	.13	17.1
1964	3,655	22.9	1,640	2.7	22,900	.15	.18	14.0
1965	3,963	25.0	1,550	2.5	23,300	.15	.18	15.1
1966	4,405	22.2	1,960	3.0	25,400	.15	.18	12.9
1967	4,595	22.8	2,870	4.3	42,100	.25	.30	14.7
1968	5,045	24.5	2,649	3.8	49,018	.28	.32	18.5
1969 [4]	5,600	(5)	2,530	3.5	44,500	.23	(5)	17.6

[1] Average duration figures relate to stoppages ending during the year and are simple averages, with each stoppage given equal weight regardless of its size.

[2] Workers are counted more than once if they were involved in more than one stoppage during the year.

[3] These data were revised in 1968 to reflect a more comprehensive base of working time by the inclusion of agricultural and government employment.

[4] Preliminary.

[5] Not available.

Table G–6. Consumer Price Index for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, by Major Group, and Purchasing Power of the Consumer Dollar, 1947–69

[1957-59=100]

Year	All items	Food	Housing		Apparel and upkeep	Transportation	Medical care	Personal care	Reading and recreation	Other goods and services	Purchasing power of the consumer dollar
			Total	Rent							
1947	77.8	81.3	74.5	68.7	89.2	64.3	65.7	76.2	82.5	75.4	1.285
1948	83.8	88.2	79.8	73.2	95.0	71.6	69.8	79.1	86.7	78.9	1.194
1949	83.0	84.7	81.0	76.4	91.3	77.0	72.0	78.9	89.9	81.2	1.205
1950	83.8	85.8	83.2	79.1	90.1	79.0	73.4	78.9	89.3	82.6	1.194
1951	90.5	95.4	88.2	82.3	98.2	84.0	76.9	86.3	92.0	86.1	1.106
1952	92.5	97.1	89.9	85.7	97.2	89.6	81.1	87.3	92.4	90.6	1.081
1953	93.2	95.6	92.3	90.3	96.5	92.1	83.9	88.1	93.3	92.8	1.076
1954	93.6	95.4	93.4	93.5	96.3	90.8	86.6	88.5	92.4	94.3	1.092
1955	93.3	94.0	94.1	94.8	95.9	89.7	88.6	90.0	92.1	94.3	1.071
1956	94.7	94.7	95.5	96.5	97.8	91.3	91.8	93.7	93.4	95.8	1.056
1957	98.0	97.8	98.5	98.3	99.5	96.5	95.5	97.1	96.9	98.5	1.021
1958	100.7	101.9	100.2	100.1	99.8	99.7	100.1	100.4	100.8	99.[illegible]	.994
1959	101.5	100.3	101.3	101.6	100.6	103.8	104.4	102.4	102.4	101.8	.985
1960	103.1	101.4	103.1	103.1	102.2	103.8	108.1	104.1	104.9	103.8	.971
1961	104.2	102.6	103.9	104.4	103.0	105.0	111.3	104.6	107.2	104.6	.960
1962	105.4	103.6	104.8	105.7	103.6	107.2	114.2	106.5	109.6	105.3	.949
1963	106.7	105.1	106.0	106.8	104.8	107.8	117.0	107.9	111.5	107.1	.937
1964	108.1	106.4	107.2	107.8	105.7	109.3	119.4	109.2	114.1	108.8	.925
1965	109.9	108.8	108.5	108.9	106.8	111.1	122.3	109.9	115.2	111.4	.910
1966	113.1	114.2	111.1	110.4	109.6	112.7	127.7	112.2	117.1	114.9	.884
1967	116.3	115.2	114.3	112.4	114.0	115.9	136.7	115.5	120.1	118.2	.860
1968	121.2	119.3	119.1	115.1	120.1	119.6	145.0	120.3	125.7	123.6	.825
1969	127.7	125.5	126.7	118.8	127.1	124.2	155.0	126.2	130.5	129.0	.783

Table G–7. Persons Below Poverty Level, by Family Status, 1959–68[1]

Color and year	All persons	Persons in families						Unrelated individuals 14 years and over
		Total	Family head			Family members under 18 years	Other family members	
			Total	Nonfarm	Farm			
	Number below poverty level (thousands)							
TOTAL								
1959	39,490	34,562	8,320	6,625	1,696	17,208	9,034	4,928
1960	39,851	34,925	8,243	6,649	1,594	17,288	9,394	4,926
1961	39,628	34,509	8,391	7,044	1,347	16,577	9,541	5,119
1962	38,625	33,623	8,077	7,004	1,073	16,630	8,916	5,002
1963	36,436	31,498	7,554	6,467	1,087	15,691	8,253	4,938
1964	36,055	30,912	7,160	6,058	1,102	15,736	8,016	5,143
1965	33,185	28,358	6,721	5,841	880	14,388	7,249	4,827
1966	28,510	23,809	5,784	5,211	573	12,146	5,879	4,701
1967	27,769	22,771	5,667	5,093	574	11,427	5,677	4,998
1968	25,389	20,695	5,047	4,553	494	10,739	4,909	4,694
WHITE								
1959	28,484	24,443	6,185	4,916	1,269	11,386	6,872	4,041
1960	28,310	24,263	6,115	4,919	1,197	11,229	6,919	4,047
1961	27,889	23,746	6,205	5,161	1,044	10,615	6,926	4,143
1962	26,671	22,613	5,887	5,090	797	10,382	6,344	4,058
1963	25,238	21,149	5,466	4,610	856	9,749	5,934	4,089
1964	24,958	20,716	5,258	4,380	878	9,573	5,885	4,242
1965	22,496	18,508	4,824	4,163	661	8,596	5,088	3,988
1966	19,290	15,430	4,106	3,685	421	7,203	4,121	3,860
1967	18,982	14,851	4,055	3,610	446	6,729	4,067	4,131
1968	17,395	13,546	3,616	3,225	390	6,373	3,557	3,849
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES								
1959	11,006	10,119	2,135	1,709	426	5,822	2,162	887
1960	11,542	10,663	2,128	1,731	398	6,059	2,476	876
1961	11,738	10,762	2,186	1,882	304	5,963	2,613	976
1962	11,953	11,010	2,190	1,914	276	6,248	2,572	943
1963	11,198	10,349	2,088	1,857	231	5,942	2,319	849
1964	11,098	10,196	1,902	1,678	224	6,163	2,131	902
1965	10,689	9,850	1,897	1,679	219	5,793	2,160	839
1966	9,220	8,379	1,678	1,526	152	4,942	1,759	841
1967	8,786	7,920	1,611	1,483	128	4,698	1,611	866
1968	7,994	7,149	1,431	1,328	103	4,366	1,352	845
	Percent below poverty level							
TOTAL								
1959	22.4	20.8	18.5	16.1	44.6	26.9	15.9	46.1
1960	22.2	20.7	18.1	15.8	45.7	26.5	16.2	45.2
1961	21.9	20.3	18.1	16.4	38.6	25.2	16.5	45.9
1962	21.0	19.4	17.2	16.0	33.5	24.7	15.1	45.4
1963	19.5	17.9	15.9	14.6	35.1	22.8	13.8	44.2
1964	19.0	17.4	15.0	13.5	35.6	22.7	13.3	42.7
1965	17.3	15.8	13.9	12.9	29.8	20.7	11.8	39.8
1966	14.7	13.1	11.8	11.3	20.6	17.4	9.5	38.3
1967	14.2	12.5	11.4	10.8	21.4	16.3	9.1	38.1
1968	12.8	11.3	10.0	9.5	18.8	15.3	7.8	34.0
WHITE								
1959	18.1	16.5	15.2	13.1	38.0	20.6	13.3	44.1
1960	17.8	16.2	14.9	12.9	39.0	20.0	13.3	43.0
1961	17.4	15.8	14.8	13.3	33.3	18.7	13.3	43.2
1962	16.4	14.7	13.9	12.9	27.5	17.9	12.0	42.7
1963	15.3	13.6	12.8	11.6	30.5	16.5	11.0	42.0
1964	14.9	13.2	12.2	10.9	31.2	16.1	10.8	40.7
1965	13.3	11.7	11.1	10.2	24.6	14.4	9.2	38.1
1966	11.3	9.7	9.3	8.9	16.5	12.1	7.4	36.1
1967	11.0	9.2	9.0	8.5	18.1	11.3	7.2	36.5
1968	10.0	8.4	8.0	7.5	15.9	10.7	6.3	32.2
NEGRO AND OTHER RACES								
1959	56.2	56.0	50.4	45.3	91.8	66.7	42.5	57.4
1960	55.9	55.7	49.0	44.2	93.4	66.6	43.3	59.3
1961	56.1	55.6	49.0	45.9	85.4	65.7	44.8	62.7
1962	55.8	55.3	48.0	45.0	90.2	66.4	43.2	62.1
1963	51.0	50.5	43.7	41.4	81.3	60.9	38.9	58.3
1964	49.6	49.1	40.0	37.5	79.2	61.5	35.7	55.0
1965	47.1	46.8	39.7	37.2	82.0	57.3	35.3	50.7
1966	39.8	38.9	33.9	32.2	49.8	48.2	27.7	53.1
1967	37.2	36.3	32.1	30.9	58.4	44.9	25.3	48.2
1968	33.5	32.4	28.2	27.1	58.9	41.6	20.9	45.7

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[1] Family status is as of March of following year. Data for 1967 are not strictly comparable with other years because of a coding error which may have overstated the number of poor families in 1967 by about 175,000 and the number of poor persons by approximately 460,000.

SOURCE: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P–23, No. 28, based on the modified Social Security Administration poverty definition adopted by a Federal interagency committee in 1969.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE : 1970 O - 371-913